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ABSTRACT

A study analyzed the nature of the delivery system for adult occupational education provided by the public sector in four New Jersey counties and then across the country. Objectives were to describe, identify, and analyze existing linkage networks; factors affecting articulation; factors facilitating or impeding collaborative linkages between providers and such user systems as business and industry, labor, and CETA (Comprehensive Employment and Training Act) programs; and policy alternatives for enhancing effectiveness. Focusing on four New Jersey counties, the first stage consisted of an ecological analysis of roles and relationships of providers by mapping existing linkage networks and a search for explanations of linkage related phenomena. Over a nine month period, data was collected in three forms (interview, observations, and documentary data) and analyzed using the inductive approach to qualitative data analysis (grounded theory technique). Limitations included the exclusion of methods outside the public sector, geographical bias, and the fact that separate organizational units devoted specifically to adult occupational education are rare. The second stage of research involved the use of the analytical description as a base for extending the study nationally through a survey of state level decision makers. Results indicated minimal coordination and cooperation, sporadic and muted competition, and a general indifference from an ecological systems perspective indicating a need for improving articulation through increased tangible incentives for institutions and state agencies; clarification of institution roles; more collaborative effort with business, industry, and CETA; and improvement of leadership. (FP)

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OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION FOR ADULTS: AN ANALYSIS OF INSTITUTIONAL ROLES AND RELATIONSHIPS

By

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with

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PART I

INTRODUCTION

Historically, in most states, occupational education has been largely associated with special secondary schools or programs that prepare young people for jobs in the skilled trades, in secretarial and other office skills, in distributive and agricultural education, and in various technology areas. While these secondary-level programs and institutions are still thriving, in recent years vocational or occupational education has grown enormously in the postsecondary sector—particularly in community colleges and in some states in publically supported postsecondary technical institutes or their equivalent.

In addition to publically supported secondary and postsecondary occupational education, there exists as well an enormous array of other resources and settings for such training including proprietary schools, industry-sponsored training of one kind or another, union training programs, manpower programs supported by CETA and other federal and state enactments, and the vast training apparatus of the U.S. armed forces and other government agencies at federal, state and local levels. In these settings, moreover, virtually all the learners are adults.

This configuration of agencies, programs, and levels in occupational education is cross-cut by another dimension of considerable import. Education for work is fundamentally oriented to two purposes: preparation for jobs and upgrading of skills and knowledge of those already employed. The former is generally referred to as preparatory occupational education and the latter continuing occupational education. Continuing occupational education can be considered a form of adult education since those who participate have left formal schooling, obtained employment and in general are engaged in the ordinary business of adult life in which education is a part-time or short-term undertaking. Preparatory occupational education, while predominantly associated with full-time schooling for high-school or college-aged youth, involves adult learners as well—usually, but not always, in part-time degree or certificate programs offered in the evenings in postsecondary settings.

Purpose of Study

The research reported here is concerned with one part of the larger configuration of activities referred to as vocational or occupational education. That part is adult occupational education provided by public sector educational organizations such as area vocational-technical schools, community colleges and public school adult education units (adult schools). This inquiry focuses upon the nature of this delivery system for adult occupational education—the roles played by the major provider institutions, the interrelationships of these institutions with one another, and the connections or linkages between these institutions and business and industry, organized labor and CETA.

The approach or perspective employed here can best be described as ecological. The concern is with exploring and analyzing the system as a whole in which the parts are seen as interrelated and the system itself embedded in a larger environment of organizations and socio-economic forces that affect its structure and functioning in fundamental and direct ways. While the study is exploratory and descriptive, it is also analytical in that explanations are sought for why the system functions as it does and conclusions drawn concerning options for policy-level interventions aimed at enhancing the system's effectiveness in meeting the public need. The specific objectives of the study are as follows.

1. To describe and analyze the ecology of existing linkage networks involving adult occupational education agencies and business and industry, CETA and organized labor.
2. To identify and describe the factors that affect coordination, cooperation and competition among agencies that provide adult occupational education.
3. To identify and describe the factors that facilitate and impede collaborative linkages between providers of adult occupational education and business and industry, CETA and organized labor.
4. To identify policy alternatives for enhancing the effectiveness of adult occupational education in meeting the needs of employers and the adult public.

Significance of Study

The focus of concern in the study, that is the variables of linkage, coordination, cooperation and competition, has been described elsewhere under the rubric of "articulation." In a recent study, sponsored jointly by the American Vocational Association and the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, articulation was defined as follows:

> Articulation refers to the process of fitting vocational education into the larger community. Effective articulation is not a system, but many systems within and among institutions providing vocational education programs. It can take several forms: cooperation...between area vocational schools, technical institutes and community colleges; between education and work and work and education; between local, state and federal programs, and even within institutions.[1]

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[1] David S. Bushnell, Cooperation in Vocational Education. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Community and Junior Colleges and American Vocational Association, 1978., p. 4.

Lack of articulation, of course, is a matter of grave concern to vocational educators, particularly at the postsecondary and adult levels where no one type of institution has a monopoly on programs and clientele. Lack of cooperation and coordination among provider agencies and even competition for students and programs are widely regarded as serious problems likely to become exacerbated as the pool of secondary and college-age students contracts sharply in the 1980's.[1] Another related concern involves articulation between public sector educational providers and the world of work itself, including organized labor, and between educational providers and CETA. The issues again involve cooperation and coordination. It is widely believed that education and industry can mutually benefit from closer collaboration in the task of developing and upgrading the nation's pool of skilled manpower.[2] Likewise, CETA and organized labor are seen as vital resources for public sector occupational education agencies, and these agencies in turn are seen as resources for CETA and organized labor.[3] Once more, however, the general consensus is that articulation in practice falls far short of its promise in theory.

When the gap between the desired and the actual state of affairs is so great, one is led to ask very fundamental questions. Essentially, these questions involve ascertaining the actual state of affairs, why it is what it is, and re-evaluating the desired state of affairs in light of the actual, the probable and the possible. This, in short, is what was attempted in this study.

Definitions

While it is not unduly difficult to define the terms "adult" and "occupational education," the conjunction of the two presents problems because the resulting construct is so encompassing. Once occupational education is removed from a specific institutional context, such as the secondary vocational school, its purposes, methods, content and clienteles become virtually boundless. In an effort to set some limits, the principal focus of the study was on occupational education provided to adults by publically supported educational institutions such as vocational/technical schools, community colleges, and public adult schools. We also tried to impose boundaries by limiting the content or "level" of occupational education to the skilled trades (trade and industrial education), office occupations, distributive and agricultural education, sub-professional (below bachelor's degree) education in the health and human services fields, and sub-professional education in the various field of applied technology. For the most part, then, the study dealt with education and training that is generally considered "vocational" rather than "professional." Admittedly, the boundaries between these two categories are sometimes arbitrary and not always distinct—particularly in community college and other higher education settings.

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[1] Bushnell, op. cit., p. 6.

[2] Willard Wirtz, The Boundless Resource. Washington, D.C.: New Republic Books, 1975.

[3] New Jersey Advisory Council on Vocational Education. Annual Report, 1977. Trenton, N.J.: The Council, 1978.

The definitions of key concepts employed in this research follow.

1. Adult occupational education. Education or training on a part-time or short-term basis for persons beyond the age of compulsory schooling designed to develop specific occupational skills in preparation for employment or to upgrade skills and knowledge of those already employed. Included is degree credit occupational education up to the level of the two-year associate degree and all certificate or non-credit part-time occupational education at any level for any purpose.

2. Ecological system. A set of entities, such as organizations, that exist in relationship to each other within a particular environment.

3. Linkage. Any relationship between organizations in which resources of any kind (tangible or intangible) are exchanged.

4. Cooperation. A relationship between two or more organizations involving linkage for specific mutual benefits.

5. Coordination. The process of fostering relationships among two or more organizations which causes them to act together in a concerted fashion.

6. Competition. A relationship between organizations in which one (or both) attempts to secure scarce resources at the expense of the other(s).

7. Domain. The legitimate right of an organization to lay claim to or carry out activities of a particular kind. Commonly referred to as "turf."

While these definitions are of necessity extremely abstract, they are grounded in a considerable body or research and theory related to systems analysis or organizations, organizational exchange theory, and the rapidly growing field of organization/enviroment interactions. This body of research and theory will not be reviewed here. Interested readers may consult an analytical summary and interpretation of relevant material prepared in the course of this study by one of the present authors and published elsewhere.[1]

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[1] Harold Beder, "An Environmental Interaction Model for Agency Development in Adult Education." Adult Education, 28 (Spring, 1978), 176-190.

Design and Methodology

The study consisted of two interrelated but distinct components. The first was an intensive, ecological analysis of the roles and relationships of institutional providers of adult occupational education in four New Jersey counties. Using the county as the bounded environment for ecological analysis, fieldwork focused on mapping existing linkage networks between and among educational provider institutions and between these institutions and relevant resource and user systems such as business and industry, labor and CETA. Data were collected over a nine-month period from October,1977 to June, 1978. Details concerning the methods and procedures of the fieldwork component of the research, including a description of the counties selected for study, are provided in the introductory chapter to Part II of this report. It is important to note here, however, that detailed mapping and descriptions was only one objective of the ecological analysis phase of the study. A second and equally important goal was to search for explanations of linkage-related phenomena through comparative analysis of data sets across all four counties. This involved an adaptation of the inductive approach to qualitative data analysis described in Glaser and Strauss's book The Discovery of Grounded Theory.[1] Data collection and analysis proceeded concurrently using the constant-comparative method of qualitative analysis and theoretical sampling. For example, interview data in the form of field reports from the four community colleges were analyzed for common themes or categories as well as for idiosyncratic or discordant themes. In this way categories such as "mainstreaming" (of adult learners) were identified and further developed through subsequent, targeted data collection—that is, through "theoretical sampling." While theory building was not our primary purpose, the adaptation of grounded theory technique was useful in extending the research beyond ecological description to the development of analytical categories and tentative explanations.

The analytical description of institutional roles and relationships generated by the four-county study served as the basis for the second stage of the research, which was designed to test and extend the ecological study findings on a national basis. For example, we found in New Jersey that domain conflict, or disagreement over "turf" among institutions that provide adult occupational education, can lead to high levels of interinstitutional competition. For the national survey, items were developed to measure the constructs of domain conflict and competition in order to determine if a similar relationship existed in states other than New Jersey. The population for the survey study consisted of state-level decisionmakers, in all fifty states, concerned directly with adult occupational education. The methods and procedures employed in this second stage of the study are described in detail in Part III of this report. The survey instrument can be found in Appendix A.

The final stage of the research involved reviewing findings and conclusions from both the ecological and survey components of the study in an effort to derive recommendations for decision-makers and policy-makers at the state and national levels. The recommendations are not prescriptions for action or a blueprint for national policy, but rather a set of observations and suggestions that hopefully will raise questions, spark discussion or reflection and perhaps serve as indicators of where change or action may be needed.

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[1] Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss, The Discovery of Grounded Theory. Chicago: Aldine, 1967.

Limitations of Study

The major limitation of the study, which could also be construed as a major finding, is that adult occupational education is to a large extent a hypothetical construct that is not unambiguously operationalized or defined by specific programmatic or organizational activities or structures. More concretely, organizational units devoted specifically to adult occupational education are rare, although they do exist in the evening or continuing education activities of area vocational-technical schools in New Jersey and many other states. Community colleges and public school systems do commonly maintain separate adult education units, but these units are not devoted exclusively to work-related programming. Furthermore, many adult learners engaged in occupational education enroll in the "regular" degree or certificate programs of community colleges and postsecondary vocational-technical institutes and not in the evening or adult divisions of these organizations. Thus, while the emphasis on part-time adult learners was maintained throughout the study, it was not always possible to make clear distinctions between "postsecondary" and "adult" students and programs.

Another limitation, noted earlier, was the decision to focus the study on adult occupational education provided by public educational institutions. Such education takes place under many other auspices outside formal, school-like settings. While note is taken of these other settings, they were not studied directly or intensively.

A final and very fundamental limitation is the fact that the study is highly colored by the particular set of circumstances that characterizes adult occupational education in New Jersey. Institutional roles, financing, access, relationships with CETA, and even terminology differ greatly from state to state. While every effort was made to focus on basic questions of organizational dynamics that should have parallels in most other states, this does not guarantee that the findings and conclusions presented here are valid or relevant elsewhere. While the findings from the national survey do provide some check against geographical bias, the questions asked and the perspective on data analysis were heavily influenced by the ecological studies in four New Jersey counties.

Organization of Report

The report is organized as follows. Part II, "Adult Occupational

Education: An Ecological Analysis," reports the research conducted in four New Jersey counties. It is organized into five chapters, the first of which introduces this component of the study and describes its methodology. Chapter 2 presents an analysis of the community college and chapters 3, 4 and 5 deal respectively with area vocational-technical schools, adult schools and CETA. Chapter 6 presents an analytical synthesis and highlights the principal findings and conclusions of this component of the study. Part III, "Coordination and Competition: A National Perspective," is a report of the national survey component of the study. Separate sections describe the purpose of the survey, its methodology and data analysis procedures, and the survey findings and conclusions. Part IV, "Concluding Observations and Recommendations," summarizes briefly the major policy-relevant conclusions of the study and presents several recommendations addressed to state and national level decisionmakers.

PART II

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this section is to analytically describe the delivery of adult vocational education from an organizational-ecology perspective, a perspective which represents our overriding framework for analysis. In selecting such a perspective we are assuming that the organizations which provide adult vocational education, organizations which support these providers, and the clients of adult vocational education constitute an identifiable system analagous to an ecosystem. Within this system, each element has an identifiable function. For example, as we shall see, it is part of the community college's function to provide credit bearing course work leading to formal certification. An ecological perspective further posits that the elements of the system exist in relationship to each other and to the environment in which they are located. It follows that the kinds of relationships that exist — for example, cooperation, coordination, competition — and their antecedents and consequences are crucial to an understanding of the system.

In New Jersey, the delivery system for adult vocational education is well suited to an ecological study because the boundaries for delivery are drawn on a county basis. Thus the county represents a common system for analysis, the primary components of the system being county community colleges, county (area) vocational-technical schools, and adult schools sponsored by individual school districts but coordinated on a county wide basis. Although not a provider per se, a major element in the system is CETA which is also organized on a county prime sponsor basis. Thus New Jersey counties constitute well defined systems in regards to adult vocational education. This is true in many other states, but by no means in all.

Although the suitability of an ecological perspective for the phenomenon studied was a major reason for selecting this framework, there is another reason of equal import. As we have previously noted, the primary purpose of the research was to assist policymakers in making decisions. Yet policymakers are seldom responsible for the total delivery of adult vocational education within a state. Consequently they may tend to view the delivery system of adult vocational education primarily from the perspective of the components under their purview. Community college decisionmakers possess a community college perspective, vocational school decisionmakers possess a vocational school perspective, and so forth. The ecological perspective, however, views the delivery of adult vocational education in totality, presenting an overall picture which otherwise is not readily available to individual policymakers.

Methodology

After it became clear that New Jersey counties would be excellent units of analysis for an organizational ecology study, the next step was to select counties for study. Desiring a manageable number of counties to deal with, we initially decided to conduct research in four. Selection of the four counties began with collecting data on all New Jersey counties, the purpose being both to sensitize ourselves to the general concerns of adult vocational education and to identify criteria relevant to selecting counties for indepth treatment. In this regard field researchers visited county community colleges in fourteen of New Jersey's twenty-one counties in order to conduct basic fact finding interviews with deans, directors of continuing education and various other personnel familiar with adult vocational education. On the basis of this preliminary work, the extent of urbanization within a county was determined to be an especially important environmental factor. Hence it was decided to select one relatively rural county (Burlington), one urban county (Mercer) and two counties which were primarily suburban (Middlesex and Somerset).

A basic descriptive profile of these counties follows.[1]

Burlington County

Burlington County, which is located in the South-Central portion of the state, ranks thirteenth of New Jersey's twenty-one counties in population density (395.2 persons per square mile). This statistic is slightly misleading, however, as most of the county's population is clustered in the northern and southern portions which abut urbanized areas surrounding Trenton and Camden. The central portion of Burlington County is decidedly rural and to a great extent is socially and economically oriented towards Ft. Dix, a large military installation. In 1974, the mean per capita income of Burlington County residents was $4,802. Of New Jersey's twenty-one counties Burlington ranks twelfth in median family income and tenth in mean income. Between 1960 and 1970, Burlington experienced a net decline in population of 1.7 percent.

Of the four counties studied here, Burlington has more than twice the area of any of the remaining three, its area being 81,764 sq. miles. The median years of school completed by adults is 12.3.

Mercer County

Mercer County contains the city of Trenton, which is the state capital and one of the state's three largest cities. Mercer is New Jersey's eighth most densely populated county, having a population density of 1,345.7 persons per square mile. Mercer ranks seven out of twenty-one counties in per capita income and eighth in mean income. The per capita income in 1974 was $5,226. Between 1960 and 1970, the county population grew by 5.1 percent. Mercer is 22,600 square miles in area and the median years of school completed is 12.1.

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[1] All statistics taken from U.S. Census data.

Middlesex County

Middlesex County lies to the north of Mercer in Central New Jersey. Although there are no large cities within the county, the population is rather dense, there being 1,877.2 persons per square mile. Middlesex ranks seventh among New Jersey counties in population density, tenth in per capita income and seventh in mean income. In 1970 the total population was 583,812; the area in square miles is 31,100. Population increased 1.8 percent between 1960 and 1970. The median years of school completed is 12.2.

Somerset County

Somerset is one of New Jersey's wealthiest counties, ranking fourth out of 21 counties in per capita income and third in mean income. The 1974 per capita income $5,998. The county has grown rapidly, the population increasing 26.1 percent between 1960 and 1970. The total 1970 population of Somerset County was 198,372, and the county is 30,555 square miles in area. Somerset ranks eleventh in population density. The median years of schooling completed for adults is 12.5.

Once our four counties had been chosen, field researchers were given their assignments. At first, field researchers operated on a county basis, interviewing relevant providers of adult vocational education, collecting documentary material, and observing delivery sites. This enabled field researchers to view adult vocational education from a county-system perspective. Once this basic perspective had been gained, however, the field strategy shifted to a more indepth investigation of the various providers. Accordingly, field researchers were redirected towards focusing on a particular provider. One researcher focused on CETA and area vocational-technical schools; another researcher focused on community colleges, and a third concentrated on adult schools. Again, relevant providers were interviewed, documents were collected and analyzed, and observations were conducted where relevant.

As indicated, our field strategy utilized three data sources: interviews, documents, and observation.

Interviews

Interviews were our primary source of data. Consonant with a grounded theory methodology,[1] most interviews were relatively open ended. Within a county, our first contact was generally with the individual in the provider organization most familiar with adult vocational education. Then near the end of the interview, the respondent was asked to identify other persons in his organization who might be important sources of data. These persons were subsequently interviewed. Depending on the richness of data received from a respondent, interviews ranged between fifteen minutes and two hours in length. All interviews were organized into comprehensive field notes which were then reproduced and circulated to all research staff. A summary of interviews conducted follows:

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[1] See Part I for a more detailed explanation.

Interviews Conducted

Provider Institution	Number of Interviews
Community Colleges	47
Adult Schools	15
Area Vocational Technical Schools	12
CETA	6
Other	8
Total	88

Documents

Documentary data was a useful supplement to the interview data. Among the kinds of documents collected and analyzed were: course bulletins and brochures, newspaper articles, press releases, descriptive statistics, evaluation reports, annual reports, procedural manuals, and research reports.

Observations

Observation was most helpful in sensitizing field researchers to the types of providers studied. In this regard college campuses and school sites were visited. Such observational data were useful in assessing such things as the adequacy of facilities, proximity of the site to clients, and general educational orientation of the provider.

After all data had been collected, findings were organized into case analyses of the major providers of adult vocational education in New Jersey. The chapters which follow, begin with an analysis of the role of community colleges in adult vocational education. As in most states, New Jersey community colleges are higher education institutions granting terminal associate degrees as well as serving as transfer institutions. In addition, New Jersey community colleges offer significant amounts of certificate (non-degree) oriented instruction and non-credit work. The next chapter discusses area vocational-technical schools, institutions which provide substantial amounts of instruction to adults despite the fact that they are primarily oriented towards secondary level vocational-technical education for youth. Following the discussion of area vocational-technical schools, is an analysis of adult schools. In New Jersey, adult schools are typically evening operations offering comprehensive programming through the public schools. Whereas community colleges and vocational-technical schools are county wide in service area, adult schools operate on a school district basis.

In the final case analysis, CETA is examined. Although technically speaking CETA is not normally a provider of adult vocational education, through its funding of vocational education CETA has major impact on the ecology of adult vocational education. This section concludes with a summary analysis which is designed to synthesize the findings of the case analyses which precede it.

CHAPTER 2

COMMUNITY COLLEGES*

This Chapter presents an overview of the community college system in New Jersey, identifies the type of extent of adult occupational education activity within four selected community colleges and discusses interrelationships between community colleges and other educational and non-educational institutions.

The term adult occupational education refers to any credit or non-credit course or program offered by an institution to an adult clientele for the purpose of preparing the student for job entry or to provide upgrading of present skills. This definition would include all community college occupational courses and programs ranging in level from developmental non-credit introductory courses to the academic credit courses required for the two year associate degree.

Overview of the New Jersey Community College System

On April 30, 1962, the New Jersey Assembly passed a bill authorizing the establishment of community colleges in New Jersey.[1] On May 7th, one week after its passage in the assembly, the bill passed the Senate under an emergency resolution. Within four years after the law took effect, seventeen of the twenty-one counties had moved to establish a community college. Today there are eighteen community colleges in New Jersey.

The establishment and operation of community colleges was authorized under Title 18A, Chapter 64A of the laws of New Jersey. It defined a community college as an:

> educational institution established...by one or more counties, offering programs of instruction, extending not more than two years beyond the high school, which may include but need not be limited to specialized or comprehensive curriculums, including college credit transfer courses, terminal courses in the liberal arts and sciences, and technical institute type programs.[2]

There are 18 community college jurisdictional areas qualifying for the establishment of community colleges in New Jersey. Three of these include overlapping counties: Atlantic-Cape May; Somerset-Hunterdon;

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[1] New Jersey Legislative Index 1962. Legislative Index of New Jersey, Inc., Elizabeth, N.J., March 8, 1963, p. 1085.

[2] New Jersey Statutes Annotated Title 18A Education 18A:25 to 18A:65. West Publishing Co., Newark, N. J. (Re: Chapter 64A County Colleges).

*By Pauline MacNeil

and Sussex-Warren. Generally only one community college is allowed in each area. A community college can, however, establish branch campuses if approved by the Board of Higher Education. Only one community college was established in each of the 4 counties of the study: Middlesex, Mercer, Somerset, and Burlington.

The purposes of the colleges as outlined in the New Jersey Administrative Code include the following aims and objectives:[1]

1. To provide supplementary education and training for those in the work force who seek to upgrade their capabilities or to develop new skills.

2. To provide general education to facilitate the development of the broadly educated person, one who is able to think effectively, communicate thoughts, make relevant judgements and distinguish among values.

3. To provide opportunities for entering or continuing higher education for those with scholastic deficiencies who show promise of success.

4. To provide counseling, guidance and academic advisement to assist students in self-appraisal and self-determination of goals and objectives.

The aims and objectives of the community college are very broad in that they allow the college to develop credit and non-credit occupational courses for upgrading and the development of new skills; remediation courses for students with academic difficiencies, and general education courses for personal development in addition to the academic courses associated with the two year degree. This provides the community college with considerable domain scope, which to varing degrees overlaps with the program domains of both the vocational-technical school and the adult school.

In New Jersey, community colleges as institutions of higher education report to the Board of Higher Education, not to the Board of Education as do the vocational-technical schools and the adult schools. The Board of Higher Education is responsible for establishing the rules and regulations affecting the operation of community colleges. Each county college also has a board of trustees consisting of the county superintendent of schools and eight persons appointed by the director of the board of chosen freeholders with the board's advice and consent.

Although the legislation recommends that community college faculty members have a master's degree or the equivalent in the subject taught, relevant training and experience may be substituted for the degree. Most faculty are full time employees, although they can be "supplemented" by part-time teachers serving under the supervision of full time professional staff. The state legislation also stipulated that the normal teaching load should not be less than the load in effect at the state colleges, and that the teaching staff and administrative officers other than the president would hold all the rights and privileges of teachers employed by local boards of education.

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[1] New Jersey Administrative Code Title I Higher Education, Chapter 4, (Re: 9:4-1.2).

Mainstreaming Adult Education

Community colleges have evolved considerably since the 1962 legislation which brought them into existence. However, this evolution has not been uniform. In the approximately fifteen years since they were established, community colleges in New Jersey have developed relatively independently of one another. Thus, the administrative units responsible for carrying out the legislated aims and objectives of the college vary in structure from one community college to another. In the four community colleges in the study, for example, responsibility for adult occupational programs rested, to varying degrees, with administrators in the Division of Continuing Education, the Division of Community Services; the Division of Community Services and Part Time Studies; the Division of Instructional Programs or the Division of Student Affairs; in Extension; or in a combination of any of the above; as well as being scattered throughout the academic departments. The profusion of administration units responsible for developing adult occupational programming at the community college is in sharp contrast to the centralized administrative units of the vocational-technical schools' adult programs and those of the local adult schools. Further complicating the study of community college adult occupational programs is the fact that while adults generally attend the vocational-technical school and the adult school at night and do not participate in the regular operations of these institutions, adults can participate in all aspects of community college operations and attend the institution both day and night. Adults, as a distinct group of participants, are therefore more difficult to locate within the community college.

Because of the diffusion of administrative responsibility for adult occupational programming and the participation of adults at all levels within the college, the function of adult occupational education is dispersed. This diffusion of program responsibility and of adult students throughout the college is referred to here as "mainstreaming." Mainstreaming created a special methodological problem in the study of adult occupational education activities in community colleges in that it was difficult during the course of the research to clearly identify "adult" students and/or to precisely locate where adult occupational programming occured within the college. Thus the following discussion of community college adult occupational programming is addressed from the point of view of the community college as a whole.

Overview of Community College Occupational Programs

Community Colleges are authorized to award three degrees: The AA, associate in arts, the AS, associate in science, and the AAS, associate in applied science. The AA and AS are generally considered transfer programs, that is students receiving and AA and AS degree are expected to transfer into a four year college or university upon graduation. The AAS in generally considered to be a terminal degree in that it prepares students to enter the work force upon graduation. The AAS degree is vocationally oriented and its purpose has been described as follows:

> The associate in applied science (AAS) is to be awarded to those who successfully complete programs which emphasize preparation in the applied arts and sciences for careers, typically at the technical or semi-professional level. Such programs are designed to prepare students for job entry at the completion for the two-year program.

Thus, community colleges not only have the facilities and faculty on hand to develop programs in occupational areas they also have a state mandate requiring them to do so.

There are, in addition to the AAS degree programs, certificate and diploma programs and a wide range of non-credit courses in the occupational area. All are open to adult students on a full time and part time basis. Certificate programs, according to the dean of continuing education at one community college, have the same focus as the AAS degree but are non-degree in orientation and represent only one half of the course work.

Enrollments in occupational/career programs in New Jersey community colleges have grown within the last 5 years and now exceed the number of enrollments in arts and science programs, and this ratio is predicted to increase. By 1983 almost twice the number of students are expected to enroll in occupational and career programs as in the arts and sciences. Table 1 shows the increasing occupational emphasis of community colleges.

Table I

Enrollment in Occupational/Career Programs at New Jersey Community College(b)

Programs	1974	1975	1976	1977	1983
Business & Commerce Technologies	10,172	11,530	11,929	13,164	19,201
Data Processing Tech	1,766	2,200	2,459	2,803	4,834
Health Services & Paramedical	6,937	6,833	7,077	6,672	7,217
Mechanical & Engineering Tech	3,205	3,624	3,953	3,800	7,208
Natural Science Tech	426	754	765	799	1,484
Public Service Tech	4,194	6,166	5,585	5,510	8,131
Occupational Career Total	26,700	31,107	31,768	32,728	48,075
Arts & Science Total	28,947	31,145	31,050	27,230	25,658
Non Degree/Diploma/Certificates Total	N/A	N/A	N/A	13,212	33,030

(b) Adapted from Table II p. 47 of: Annual Report of New Jersey Advisory Council on Voc Ed., N.J. Advisory Council on Voc. Ed., Trenton, N.J. 1977.

Also of interest in Table I is the large proportion of students predicted to enroll in non-degree, diploma and certificate programs and that this category of student enrollees is expected to almost triple between 1977 and 1983. These statistics are particularly relevant to the later discussion of the impact of community college involvement in non-degree occupational education on other providers of occupational education, most notably the area vocational-technical schools.

Table II gives a percentage distribution by program of student enrollments in New Jersey community colleges and the changes predicted in 1983. Note in particular, the percentage increase during the past four years in the unclassified/non-degree/certificate programs and the predicted increase to 43.9% of all student enrollments by 1983. It is this area of community college programming that is most likely to overlap with courses and programs offered by vocational-technical schools and local adult schools.

Table II

Estimated Head Count Distribution of New Jersey Community College Students[(a)]

Year	Arts & Science	Occupational/ Career	Unclassified/ Non-Degree/ Certificate/etc.	Total
1974-75	37.7	34.8	27.5	100%
1975-76	34.4	34.3	31.3	100%
1976-77	33.9	34.8	31.3	100%
1977-78	28.9	34.7	36.4	100%
Projected				
1982-1983	21.3	34.8	43.9	100%

(a) Adapted from Table 1 p. 46 of: Annual Report of the New Jersey Advisory Council on Vocational Education, New Jersey Advisory Council on Vocational Education, Trenton, N.J. 1977.

It should be noted here that there is also an increase in the number of part-time students enrolling in community colleges and that the majority of part-time students are adults. The ratio of part-time to full-time students in New Jersey community colleges in 1978 was 60% part-time and 40% full time[1] and of the 52,588 part-time students, 80% were over the age of twenty-one.[2]

Following is a brief overview of adult occupational programs offered by the community colleges in the study. A number of points should be made concerning these programs:

1. since over 80% of the students attending New Jersey community colleges on a part-time basis are over the age of twenty-one, references to part-time students can generally be assumed to mean "adult" students;
2. community colleges generally refer to their job related courses as "occupational" rather than "vocational"; and
3. non-credit occupational courses should not be confused with non-credit leisure or home related courses and activities also offered by the college.

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[1] "Part-Time Undergraduate Enrollment Projections 1978-1995." N.J. Dept. of Higher Education, April 1979.

[2] "Age Distribution of Full Time Undergraduate (FTU), Full Time First Time Freshmen (FTFT) and Part-Time Undergraduates (PTU) in N.J. Colleges and Universities: Fall 1977." New Jersey Dept. of Higher Education data forms; May 1979, p. 3.

Middlesex

Middlesex Community College has a part-time enrollment which has grown from 637 in 1966 to 6,178 in 1977, exceeding by almost 2,000 the regular 1977 full-time enrollments. Only 30% of the college's students enter with the intention of going on to a four year college.

Eighty percent of the courses offered by the Division of Continuing Education are job oriented, and can be offered either on or off campus. The division had over 6,000 part-time credit enrollments in the fall semester of 1977 and approximately 4,000 students were enrolled during the previous summer.

The Community Services Division is primarily responsible for non-credit programming, which can include a wide variety of courses from CETA skill training to upgrading for industry personnel. Community Services has its own subdivision of business and industry which is active in developing occupational programs. For example, it created WATTE, a "Workshop Approach to Teacher Training," funded by the state Division of Vocational Education to provide teacher training in a vocational area. Other occupational courses developed by the division include CETA programs funded under Title I to provide training in the evenings for people who work during the day; and courses in secretarial work, accounting, and machine operations.

The college also offers a special series of courses developed to meet the needs of business, labor and industry. The "Saturday Seminar for Stewards" is a series of information workshops for union officers, stewards and "interested rank and filers" and "Occupational Health and Safety" provides a series of courses related to occupational health hazards, first aid and OSHA regulations. Most of the courses in these areas were eligible for CEUs (continuing education units) and/or offered a certificate of completion. CEU certificate programs are also available in construction technology and materials management.

The Community Services division also offered on-site programs for business and industry, special courses for small businesses, and a series of courses called "Women in the Technologies" designed to address sex stereotyping of women as unsuited for, or uninterested in careers in technical fields. A number of credit courses listed under "Comprehensive Medical Technologies" were also open to students who wanted to take them for no credit.

Mercer

Mercer Community College has been growing steadily since its establishment and had by 1977 a part-time enrollment of 4,500, almost triple that of 1967.

Approximately 75% of the college's programs are terminal and students plan to enter or remain in the work force rather than transfer into a four year institution. According to the Associate Dean of Institutional Resources, the college has been moving from a transfer to a terminal emphasis because of the administration's increasing awareness of the shrinking market of young students and the subsequent need to serve adults who are seeking retraining or upgrading of present skills.

The Kerney Campus, a satellite campus of Mercer County College located in downtown Trenton, is involved in basic skills courses which prepare students for further training in a field. In addition there are two programs which prepare students to pass the GED exams, one a college service free to Mercer county residents, the other operated through the WIN program and funded by the Department of Labor and Industry. The Director of Instructional Programs at Kerney was responsible for the majority of occupational courses. He offered credit courses in areas such as fire science, horticulture, and machine training. The Director of Community Services and Facilities said there were few occupational courses in his division and that his focus was more on leisure and general interest areas such as photography and home repair. The major training and occupational programs at Mercer Community College are located at the suburban West Windsor Campus and include degree and certificate courses in aviation; fire science technology; ornamental horticulture technology and land use management; legal assistant; secretarial science; dental assistant; radiologic technology; drafting technology; electrical technology; and the tool and die trades.

Mercer Community College appears to have fewer non-credit occupationally related programs than Middlesex. A recent brochure lists a number of career exploration courses for women and two courses in nursing and allied health. The extension division, however, is active in developing "special programs" for business and industry, most of which are contract based. The Director of Extension explained that other organizations "buy services" from the college.

Somerset

According to the Executive Dean for Academic and Student Affairs, Somerset Community College was founded in 1968 with the transfer emphasis as a priority and approximately 70% of the students were expected to transfer into a four year institution upon graduation. Although declining to 60%, this emphasis has generally been retained. Most of Somerset County College's programs are degree oriented and in the area of liberal arts. The Dean of Business, Career and Technical Programs said the college emphasizes the Associate of Arts degree because the college appeals to a "different clientele" than do the more urban community colleges. Although not specifically mentioned, but possibly a related factor, is the close proximity of the county vocational-technical institute which had established a new campus at approximately the same time the college was established. The establishment of the vocational-technical school precluded the need for the community college to provide vocational courses and most likely made it difficult for the college to justify doing so.

In spite of the transfer emphasis and the proximity of the vocational-technical school, the Director of Evening Programs felt that there would be an increase in occupational/career education at the college in the next ten to twenty years. He estimated that 50-60% of the student body are presently career rather than transfer oriented. Predictions about the future direction of the college varied and tended to be colored by the position the respondent held; for example, the Director of Evening Programs saw the college moving to respond to the interest on the part of adults for occupational/career education, whereas the Executive Dean for Academic and Student Affairs, who had been with the college since its founding, still viewed the college as predominantly transfer oriented. Regardless of predictions, the college did offer occupationally related degrees in such areas as accounting, banking, data processing, marketing, nursing, and real estate. Also offered were joint programs with the Area Vocational-Technical School in air conditioning, automotive technology, construction, diesel technology, electronics and welding.

Burlington

Although Burlington College identifies remedial programs as one of its goals, the college appears to be more academically than occupationally oriented. Seventy percent of its students enroll with the intention of transferring to a four year college. Although Burlington County College has approximately the same number of part-time students as does Mercer Community College, it has only half the number of vocational degree programs. The college is, however, attempting to have new certificate programs approved, for example in the areas of accounting and data processing. One administrator remarked that occupational certificate programs are becoming increasingly attractive to the college in that they require little investment on the part of the college and are low-cost potentially high-income programs. Other advantages of moving into certificate programs are timing and flexibility, since unlike degree programs they do not require state approval. The growing interest in certificate programs could move the college toward domain overlap with the county vocational-technical school.

The Department of Business Studies has been the fastest growing department at Burlington County College and enrolls approximately 35% of the college's degree students. The business department offers courses leading to an Associate of Science degree in accounting and business administration; an Associate of Applied Science degree in accounting technology, data processing technology, secretarial technology, and others; and certificate or diploma courses in such areas as life and health insurance, real estate, and property and casualty insurance.

To differentiate its occupational courses from those offered by the vocational-technical school, Burlington County College describes its vocational-technical programs as being academically "one step above" the training received at the vocational-technical schools. According to one administrator, the role of the area vocational-technical schools (AVTS) is to train "craftsmen, machine operators, and repairmen. The community college trains the next level up—foremen, production managers, middle-management in general." Likewise, the acting dean for continuing education (credit) felt the AVTS offered courses that emphasized "skills only," whereas students attending the college had a different focus.

Summary of Community College Involvement in Occupational Programs

Of the four community colleges in the study Middlesex offers the largest number of occupationally oriented AAS degree programs, approximately thirty-six. Mercer has twenty-nine and Burlington twelve. Of Somerset's sixteen AAS degree programs, eight are offered in cooperation with the county area vocational-technical school. There are slight differences among the community colleges as to the type of AAS degree programs offered. All four community colleges offer AAS degrees in accounting and secretarial science. However, other occupational programs vary. Burlington for example, has an AAS degree in Education Media; Mercer in Aviation and Land Use Management; Middlesex in Biological Technology and Professional Commercial Photography; and Somerset in Banking and Real Estate. These differences reflect in large part an attempt by the community colleges to address the different occupational training needs of their specific county.

In occupational certificate credit programs, Middlesex County College offers thirteen, Mercer eleven, Burlington nine, and Somerset two. Certificate programs can cover a broad range of areas, including Corrections, Respiratory Therapy, Ornamental Horticulture, Basic Fire Science, and Tool and Die Trades, and represent between 10-50% of the credit vocational courses at these institutions. A number of college administrators believed that there is a good market for certificate programs and felt that limiting credit requirements would make certificate programs more attractive to people who want or need training but have neither the time nor interest to acquire a two year degree.

Adult students attending community colleges appear to have a broad range of vocational courses to choose from because they can enroll in the same occupational courses as degree students on either a credit or non-credit basis as well as participate in credit and non-credit "special" courses independent of degree programs. In addition there are many non-credit courses open to adult students that are skills oriented and job related.

A number of distinctions can be made between the occupational courses offered by the community college and the vocational-technical school in areas requiring specialized equipment. For example, community colleges are more likely to be the major provider of courses in computer technology while vocational-technical schools would be the dominant provider of courses in diesel mechanics. However, although some areas of special emphasis are found in each institution there appears to be a considerable "grey" area where a broad range of occupationally related courses could legitimately be offered by either institution. For example, one community college offered non-credit courses in construction technology, occupational health and safety; secretarial science and a certificate program in materials managements. A vocational-technical school, in addition to providing skill training courses requiring heavy equipment, offered evening classes in bookkeeping, shorthand, and typing; a series of courses in "Health Occupations" and "Consumer and Homemaking Courses," and under "Trade and Industry" offered courses in landscaping, commercial art and electricity. These non-credit courses could equally be offered by the other institution. Thus many community college vocational programs can operate in a grey area that can overlap with the program domain of the county vocational-technical school.

New Jersey's chancellor of Higher Education brought attention to the blurring of institutional domains in a paper delivered at a vocational education conference in January of 1978. He said: "Distinctions in vocational education programs are beginning to blur even more as each (college, proprietary institution, area vocational-technical school...) seeks to attract older students and offset the declining enrollment of younger students." Thus any discussion of community college's linkage relationships with educational providers, such as the vocational-technical school, must be viewed within the context of real or potential domain overlap.

Overview of Community College Linkage Relationships

The following section addresses the issue of linkage relationships among educational and non-educational institutions and is presented, for the most part, from the point of view of the community colleges. Administrators of AVTSs and adult schools are quoted when their comments serve to clarify an issue. To protect the confidentiality of the respondents, neither the name of the interviewee nor the institution is given.

Area Vocational-Technical Schools (AVTSs)

There is a difference in perception on the part of some community college administrators as to the extent of college linkages with the vocational-technical school. In one instance, where the vocational-technical school is situated near the college, a college administrator remarked that they "never communicate" with the vocational school. At the same institution, in a later interview, another administrator insisted that the college and the vocational school had both formal and informal communications and that the college and the vocational school had once worked together on a CETA proposal (which was not funded). However, he could not give any examples of specific program linkages the college had established with the vocational-technical school. Sometime after the initial interview, however, the two institutions established a joint program in a technology field where the vocational-technical school provides the "hands on" training as well as some of the theory. A vocational-technical school administrator said the articulation between his institution and the community college occurred as a result of efforts on the part of the vocational superintendent. The superintendent had recently created a position of Supervisor of Adult/Postsecondary Education whose job it was to initiate a dialogue between the community college and the vocational-technical school.

Little communication appears to exist between the area vocational-technical school and the community college in the second county. According to a college administrator, the vocational-technical school was not supportive of the decision to establish the college. When it was established, the county superintendent wanted to locate the college on the property next to the vocational school but this never materialized. Cooperation between the college and the vocational-technical school has been described as low to non-existant and communication considered somewhat "strained." One college administrator said he did not feel that tension should exist between the college and the vocational-technical school because in his view students had different reasons for going to the college and the vocational school.

The extent of linkages with the area vocational-technical school was not evident from an analysis of initial interview data for the third community college, in part because it was a sensitive issue. An interview with a vocational school administrator suggested that the community college was restricted from expanding its occupational programs into areas considered to be the vocational-technical school's "turf." The vocational school administrator referred to an incident where the community college was developing courses similar to his own. He said he had to tell the college president to "control her over zealous staff." Despite some tensions, the two institutions are presently moving to establish joint programs and now have a cooperative program in Air Conditioning where students get "hands on" training at the vocational-technical school and the "academic" training at the college. The vocational school administrator said, however, that all the details of the joint program are not worked out. For example, they "do not know who is going to pay what, or which institution will be reimbursed for how much of the tuition." He is, however, certain of one thing; he wants "complete control over the content of the joint certificate."

The fourth community college in the study was initially conceived of as a transfer institution, but as it developed it became involved in career and vocational programs. When it was first established, it had little contact with the nearby vocational-technical school. By 1970, however, the vocational-technical institute had developed a number of two year diploma programs and their students agitated to receive a degree rather than a diploma. Vocational school administrators approached the State Department of Higher Education for approval to award the AAS degree. The request was refused and the vocational-technical institute was encouraged to cooperate with the community college and establish a joint program making vocational students eligible for a degree from the college. In 1974, an agreement was reached between the community college and the vocational-technical school. Seven programs are now sponsored jointly. The college at the time of the study was one of the few community colleges in the state to have "joint programs" with a vocational-technical school. One administrator called the linkage a pioneer effort in cooperation between the two institutions and a model for other counties.

Adult Schools

Linkages relationships between community colleges and adult schools vary depending on the county. The Director of Extension at one community college considered the adult schools "extremely important linkages." The college was running nearly eighty credit courses in ten adult schools and had over 2,649 enrollees attending class in adult school locations. By informal agreement, the adult school is reimbursed $50.00 per class. Although there is communication between adult school administrators and the college on administrative issues such as scheduling, the adult school generally has no input into course content.

A second community college also had off campus centers in surrounding adult schools and most of the courses offered were for credit. A college administrator said they made a conscious effort not to compete with the adult school but that this was not difficult because adult school courses were more leisure oriented than those offered by the college.

A third community college, however, offered non-credit courses similar to those offered by the adult schools in the county. For example, the college offered ABE and GED courses as well as a number of cultural activities. A college administrator said the functions of the adult school and his community services division were "the same" and that he had " no contact" with adult schools and did not know the names of any adult school directors. Although the overlapping of programs might suggest competition between the two institutions, interviews with the local adult school directors did not uncover any references to competition. It appears that the extent of community college involvement in adult education courses was not sufficient enough to be considered a threat to the adult schools.

The degree of linkage between the fourth community college and the adult school was not clear, although one administrator indicated that non-credit adult education with a cultural emphasis was one of the college's "four pronged educational approaches." Most off campus sites are near adult schools, but according to the college there is no competition because students have different reasons for going to the community college or adult school.

Business and Industry

While the community college's linkage relationships with educational institutions in their environments appear to be somewhat limited, most are active in establishing linkages with business and industry. The associate dean for continuing education at one college gave as an example a linkage the college had established with a large retail food chain. Employees at the corporation took classes taught by the college faculty at the corporate office. Two courses were offered each semester in Business Management Technology.

Another community college began offering courses in industry six years ago and had served eight to nine industries per year for approximately the last four years. The college had ongoing programs with AT&T and Supermarkets General where the college contracted to offer the courses, hire and pay faculty, register students, maintain records, deliver tests to the company site and provide academic advisement. The obligations of the company were to provide facilities and equipment, to see that employees followed college regulations and to refrain from influencing course content.

There were fewer industry-linked programs at the third community college because, according to one college administrator, administrators and faculty were not willing to assume the responsibility for carrying them out. Since "there's nothing in it" for him, an administrator saw no reason for making the effort. This attitude, however, was changing. At the time of the interview, the college had recently hired a Coordinator for Business and Industry who was preparing a mailing list of 100 businesses and industries in the county, and developing plans to interview industry personnel. This new administrator was already running non-credit and credit seminars and workshops at both the college and business premises "to stimulate communication, visibility and interest."

The fourth community college was active in establishing linkage relationships with non-educational institutions where other institutions "buy services" from the college. These services are spelled out under a formal contract most often drawn up by a lawyer. The director of the extension division said he preferred to have the agreement formalized because it clarifies the expectations for both sides. "The agreement spells out the specifics of the course—who does what, for how long, and at what price. Both sides know exactly what the other is offering." He said formal agreements tended to work better than non-formal agreements because non-formal agreements can present misunderstandings when it comes to the details of the service delivery and "tend to fail when key people change."

CETA

All four community colleges had linkages with CETA funding agencies, but the extent of their involvement varied. For example, one college had substantial CETA support and was interested in more contracts; another was just becoming involved with CETA and although interested in increased funding was sensitive to administrative and pedagogical problems; a third had a large contract but felt the CETA administration was disorganized; and the last had a large contract but did not think the college would continue with CETA funding because of the bureaucratic red tape.

One college administrator had between twenty-five and thirty full-time staff funded under Title I CETA monies. These were organized into two areas: (1) academic support—providing basic skills training programs in the evening for people out on the job during the day; and (2) training programs including ten to twenty week training in actual job skills such as secretarial and machine operations. This college had established a satisfactory working relationship with CETA.

At a second community college, an administrator commented: "CETA is one of the college's biggest single money sources at the moment." The college had $200,000 for an experimental program called Skills Training Improvement Program (STIP) where CETA would send prospective students to the college. Those who tested high and were accepted would then be placed in college level skill training programs such as Executive Secretary and Chemical Laboratory Technologies. The same administrator said the college moved to seek CETA funds in reaction to the growing criticism that the college was withdrawing into itself. However, the college's overall impression was that CETA was "very disorganized" and was experiencing growing pains because it had received "too much money too fast."

Although the third community college was interested in acquiring CETA funding an administrator remarked that CETA's emphasis on "training" rather than "education" was to some degree in conflict with the college's philosophy of educating the whole person. CETA apparently was primarily interested in funding basic skills courses and did not see the need to supplement them with other courses, for example, in literature or the arts.

Last year the fourth community college received $240,000 in CETA money as compared to $60-70,000 from vocational education funds. The CETA contracts were for Basic Education Training, Office Skills program and Cooperative Education. The college ran into conflict with CETA over its hiring of counselors. CETA felt the college was paying its counselors too much and so decided to hire its own counselors. The college felt the CETA bureauracy was too large and too political. One administrator said that because of this, he did not expect the college to expand the CETA programs.

Although a number of conflicts are associated with CETA linkages, CETA, by nature of its being one of the largest external funding sources available to the community college, is an important financial linkage. It also accounts, in part, for the colleges' involvement in basic educational skill training programs.

Cost and Benefits of Linkages

When establishing linkages with external agencies, community colleges are faced with a number of "costs," three of which were identified in the interviews: (1) time ; (2) loss of content control; and (3) resource insecurity.

Administrative time is committed to identifying the potential linkage partners, establishing communication, developing the course and overseeing its operation. A director of extension at one community college said dealing with other institutions took up 20% of her time and that this was a major cost in establishing linkage relationships.

Establishing relationships with agencies having different primary goals such as CETA and business and industry can present the community college with the dilemma of maintaining the educational respectability of what is offered as a "training" program. According to the Instructional Program Director at one community college there is "a natural tension" between the college and CETA because the college can not limit the definition of education to minimum skills sufficient for employment. He said it is also difficult to enculturate the adult student to perceive of learning as a life long process when programming is limited to the immediate application of skill training. The education vs. training dilemma emerges when the college finds itself in need of financial support and CETA is the major or only option. Once involved with CETA, the community college is in the delicate position of trying to maintain educational standards while at the same time being "flexible" and trying "not to step on CETA's toes."

Another cost facing community colleges is that linkages by their nature tend to be unstable and change from semester to semester. Although this variability and corresponding "flexibility" is generally considered an asset in that it allows the college to offer a number of programs without being "locked" into any one program, it does place the institution in a position of resource uncertainty. Linkage agreements requiring the commitment of faculty and/or facilities for fluctuating time periods can interfere with long range planning. The "political instability" of CETA grants, for instance, was most often identified as creating this problem.

Although there are costs associated with linkage formation, in general they are balanced or outweighed by the benefits. Benefits identified by organizations in the study were: (1) an increased ability to provide programs and services to an adult clientele, thereby fulfilling the education and service mission of the institution; (2) information feedback from the linking partner that could be useful in expanding programs or developing new programs in the future; (3) an increase in the number of resources available whether in the form of facilities, faculty or financial support; (4) a decrease in the cost of operating educational programs because advertising, salary or facility expenditures were shared or taken over by one of the linking partners; (5) improved public relations as a result of increased services at minimal cost to the taxpayer; and (6) greater contact with outside organizations leading to improved visibility of both organizations and increasing the potential for future linkages.

Strategies for Establishing Linkages

A number of strategies for establishing linkage relationships were identified in the interviews. Administrators suggested the importance of:

1. making social contacts.

2. making mailing lists of businesses and industries in the county and setting up interviews to find out how the college could enhance its appeal to these institutions.

3. running credit and non-credit seminars and workshops at both the college and business locations to make the college "more convenient" to business and industry and to establish communication and visibility.

4. re-educating business and industry by showing them that it is in their best interest to farm out repetitive work to people specially trained to perform it efficiently.

5. establishing formal contacts where the organization "buys services" from the college (the formal contract reduces misunderstandings).

In establishing most linkages social contacts were considered important. Community college administrators identified as contact opportunities the professional associations they were active in, their membership on advisory committees and attendance at business luncheons.

Although responsive to external demands, community colleges do not usually sit and wait for external agencies to approach them with ideas for linkages. One administrator said his college was in the process of creating training needs that could be met by the college. He gave as an example the college's attempt to convince dentists that they should hire dental hygienists to perform routine tasks and that the college should train these hygienists. A similar case was made for the training of legal assistants. Thus, one strategy was to create a need for linkages when an obvious need did not exist.

Summary

The best potential for community college linkage relationships appears to be with business and industry, primarily because the goals and resource needs of both institutions are complementary. For example, business needs trained personnel, the community college needs enrollments. Linkage relationships between provider institutions with similar educational missions are more likely to be fewer and/or to have restrictions associated with the exchange agreement.

Articulation As A Special Type of Linkage

Linkages have been conceptualized as being voluntary and initiated by one of the linking partners. In the case of relationships between community colleges and the vocational-technical school, however, most if not all "linkages" were actually articulation agreements in the form of joint programs. Articulation had in general been initiated by an external agent, namely the State Department of Education.

The number of articulation arrangements established between community colleges and vocational-technical schools has increased rapidly as a result of State Department of Education initiative. These joint agreements appear most successful when a clear line of responsibility for each institution can be identified, and when some individual is given the primary responsibility for establishing the communication and seeing the program through.

Articulation relationships between community colleges and vocational-technical schools can, however, generate a number of problems. It was suggested by a community college administrator that joint students, that is students attending courses at both the vocational-technical school and the community colleges, become "orphans" receiving little service from either institution. Inter-institutional relationships can become strained by poor communication and funding conflicts and by status-related issues such as "deciding whose name should go first on the certificate." A vocational school administrator summed up a number of administrative problems: "Everytime I've heard any administrators or higher ups talk about (joint programs) they say: 'Who is going to get the funding?' or 'Who is going to get the credit?' or 'Who is going to register them, you or us?'" Despite these problems, none of which is insurmountable, articulation agreements seem to be taking hold in New Jersey.

Barriers To Linkages Between Community College's and AVTSs

Linkages and/or articulation agreements between community colleges and vocational-technical schools in general were fewer and more restrictive than those between community colleges and business and industry. There appear to be a number of possible reasons for this: (1) domain overlap or the lack of clear institutional responsibility in certain areas of adult vocational education; (2) general resource sufficiency; and (3) unresolved questions concerning the impact such linkages will have on the future structural form of institutional providers of adult vocational education.

In the initial phase of the study it had been assumed that adult vocational programming at the community college would differ both in level and in kind from that offered in the vocational-technical schools, for example, that community colleges would be primarily involved in two-year degree programming and vocational-technical schools in skill training requiring heavy machinery. Although these differences in program emphasis were evident, there was also a grey area where non-credit or certificate adult vocational courses could be offered by either institution. Thus complementarity of function, one necessary prerequisite for establishing linkage relationships, did not exist in a number of program areas.

Resources scarcity, one of the motivating forces behind adult school linkages, does not appear to be as salient a factor in community college/vocational-technical school relationships. Community colleges are especially active in writing grants and attracting external funding. For example, one community college had even established its own foundation. Vocational-technical schools, although their funding options were more limited than those of the community colleges, appeared to have sufficient resources for their adult programs. One vocational-technical school director for example had waiting lists for a number of his courses. Thus, for both the community college and the vocational-technical school, the need to establish linkages to acquire resources in the form of students and funding appeared to be less of a motivating factor than it was in the adult school setting.

A more subtle, but possibly pervasive factor modifying the extent of linkages or articulation agreements between community colleges and the vocational-technical schools, is the unresolved question concerning the impact such agreements will have on the future structural form or institutional placement of adult vocational programs. The broad domain of the community college and its growing involvement in adult occupational education has generated in certain sectors a concern about a community college "take over." A vocational school administrator, in referring to a joint program with the community college, said: "We have a mechanism for checks and balances....You have to have a formal agreement so one doesn't overcome the other. There's a whole structure to that agreement, six or seven pages of criteria to protect against any one institution taking over."

Although the idea of "take over" might sound extreme to those outside the system, a number of references appeared in the interviews. Vocational school administrators' opinions varied from those having a belief in the inevitability of community college dominance: "There's no doubt that colleges are going to take over much of the vocational training and we are going to end up with hard core unemployed people to train."; to administrators who believed that the community colleges would like to take over vocational programming but cannot: "If we didn't do a better job in auto mechanics then it would be taught at the community college because they're interested in head counts." Other administrators are not certain of the direction articulation will take: "Tomorrow we could be part of the community college. As fast as that."

It is not so much the reality of "take over" that is unsettling (no such position has been advocated by the State Department of Education or the State Department of Higher Education) but rather the general uncertainty as to what is happening in the field of postsecondary and adult vocational education. There is a general reluctance to cooperate when institutional benefits are not immediately evident and the impact of long term agreements is uncertain. Under conditions such as resource sufficiency, domain overlap, and insecurity as to future institutional forms, it is not surprising that there is some resistance to linkage formation and articulation between the community college and the vocational school.

Community College Domain Scope

Central to the problem of linkage formation is the unique nature of the community college and its position in the educational hierarchy in the state. In the legislation creating them, community colleges have been given a very broad mandate to provide educational programs to a diverse clientele. It is the scope of community colleges' real and potential educational involvement that makes them comparatively independent of, and at times threatening to, other educational providers.

Community colleges have scope in five major areas: content, credit, time, location and clientele. For example, community colleges can provide a wide range of programs from basic hands on skill training to academic and theory courses associated with the two year degree; can provide these courses both for credit or non-credit any time in the day or evening, on or off campus and to almost anyone including adults who have less than a high school education or those having advanced degrees who are interested in continuing their education. The domain scope of community college adult occupational education is therefore broader than that of both the adult school and the vocational-technical school and within this scope there is overlap of institutional domains.

Domain Abridgement

The actual involvement of community colleges in any level of adult occupational education programming varies, however, from one institution to another. Most if not all community colleges began with an emphasis on degree occupational programs for youth and gradually evolved their interests in adult occupational education. It appears, however, that community colleges are becoming increasingly interested in providing adult occupational education and this interest in adult occupational programming is unsettling to traditional educational providers of these services.

When community colleges involvement in adult vocational programming is minimum, it is important to realize that this limited involvement is not necessarily because community colleges choose not to become involved in vocational education, although this can sometimes be the case. A community college's occupational domain can be limited by the actions of external agents. Formal or informal restrictions placed on an organization's program expansion within what it perceives to be its legitimate domain is referred to here as "domain abridgement." An example of domain abridgement occurred in one community college where an agreement had been made between the president of the community college and the vocational school director in the area of health occupations. By agreement, the college provided training for the RN leaving all LPN training to the vocational-technical school. As the community college's adult programming expanded and the college wanted to move into new program areas, it felt restrained by the old agreement. The director of community services at the college said that although they had been asked by a number of hospitals to develop LPN-related courses, the college had to refuse the linkages even though there was a "need that wasn't being met." The administrator was in the process of encouraging the president to terminate the "restrictive" agreement. An example of informal domain abridgement limiting the college's involvement in the adult occupational arena came in the form of a comment from a vocational-technical school director, who when asked why the community college was not more actively involved in adult occupational education replied: "Because I step on them."

Change and Uncertainty

The adult vocational arena, in New Jersey community colleges at least, is in a state of transformation. No one clear programmatic example exists that can serve as a model to explain community college involvement in adult occupational education or the nature of its interagency exchange relationships.

Change and uncertainty in the adult vocational education arena may be related in large part to two characteristics of the community colleges: (1) it is the nature of community colleges to be highly flexible and to adapt their program emphasis to suit the needs of their community—some communities need more occupational training programs than others and these needs vary with technological changes in business and industry; and (2) community colleges are sensitive to changes in their economic environments and because a large proportion of their funding is tied to enrollment count they must respond to changing enrollment patterns if they are to continue at the same level of support. A decline in the enrollment of youth has led many community colleges to increase their emphasis on the recruitment of adult students.

CHAPTER 3

COUNTY AREA VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL SCHOOLS*

Background

During the second half of the 19th Century industry in the state of New Jersey enjoyed enormous growth, and there was a developing awareness of the need for trained workers to serve its needs. In 1879, New Jersey passed Chapter CV, Public Laws of 1879 "in an attempt to provide an educational program that would train workers to meet the needs of industry."[1] The farewell address of Governor George B. McClellan in 1881 illustrates the need that existed at that time. Following are excerpts:

> Never before in the history of industrial enterprises has there existed so great a demand for skilled labor, while the practical abolition of the apprenticeship system and the lack of technical schools renders it impossible to supply the demand....Unskilled labor is in super-abundance; the professions are overstocked. The necessity of the hour is to convert unskilled labor into skilled labor, and also to open avenues of remunerative employment in the arts and industries of those who otherwise would only add to the already excessive number striving for existence in the professional and merchantile walks of life....
>
> The establishment of schools for technical and artistic instruction—for both sexes—seems the only practicable solution of a pressing problem....
>
> Two years ago a law was passed (Act of 1879) looking to the establishment of industrial schools—it has proven insufficient for its purpose. That and other obstacles have thus prevented the introduction of the system. I trust that you will agree with me that a wide and liberal law—giving State aid freely, at least in the incipiency of the system, will prove as wise an expenditure as can be made.[2]

Two months later, New Jersey became the first state to make effective provisions for a system of state supported industrial schools under independent boards appointed by the Governor.[3] Under the Act of 1881, the first industrial and technical schools were established, among them Newark Technical School, now Newark College of Engineering, and Trenton School of Industrial Arts, now Mercer County College.[1]

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[1] Albert E. Jochen, A Summary of Major Federal Vocational Education Acts with Allied Data Applicable to New Jersey (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers, The State University, Department of Vocational-Technical Education, 1973), p. 17.

[2] Ibid., pp. 18-19, citing "Governor's Farewell Address," New Brunswick Times (New Jersey), January 11, 1881.

[3] Ibid., p. 19.

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In 1908, the Commission on Industrial Education, appointed by the Governor under authorization by the State Legislature, reported that according to the Commission's survey of industrialists, craftsmen, and businessmen, the manual training (industrial arts) taught in the public schools was considered insufficient to fill the needs of industry.[2] Subsequently, in 1913, the State of New Jersey passed Chapter 294 of the Public Laws of 1913 which provided for State support of a system of public vocational education.[3] The following year, the Middlesex County Vocational-Technical School System became not only the first to be established in New Jersey, but the first county-wide vocational program in the United States,[4] and the Old Guilden Street School in New Brunswick (Middlesex County) became the first full-time trade school in the United States.[5] This legislation, now included in New Jersey's education laws, Title 18A, provided for funding of evening vocational schools established by district, regional, and county vocational school boards.[6]

The federal Vocational Education Act of 1963 provided for federal funding of area-wide vocational and technical education for the first time. Under this legislation New Jersey was able to build 39 new Area Vocational-Technical School (AVTS) facilities with 50 percent federal reimbursement for construction costs to the state. Construction of these facilities was a joint venture of county, state, and federal governments, with half the cost paid by state and federal funds and half paid by the counties.[7]

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[1] Albert E. Jochen, op.cit. p. 17.

[2] Ibid., pp. 19-20, Industrial arts are still taught in comprehensive high schools. This type of training, however, is not considered "vocational" in the strict sense of the word, according to a N.J. State Department of Education official. Typically, high school students who take industrial arts courses receive only an introduction to the trades and spend only about four hours per week (one class period per day) in those courses, while those in vocational programs receive extensive training in skills of a specific trade and spend at least eleven hours per week (half-days) in training usually over a two-year period—and under skilled and experienced craftsmen.

[3] Ibid., p. 21.

[4] Ibid., p. 22.

[5] "Area Vocational-Technical Schools", a pamphlet published by N.J. Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education (1972).

[6] New Jersey Statutes Annotated, Title 18A;54-9, 54-32.

[7] AVTS pamphlet.

Vocational-technical schools have viewed evening programming for persons who have already left school and are employed, as an important part of their curriculums from the beginning. The Act of 1913, which instituted county-wide vocational school systems, authorized them to offer instruction in day, part-time, and evening classes and appropriated money for their support ($10,000 matching funds per building).[1] The federal Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 also appropriated monies for this purpose: "One-third of the sum for salaries of teachers of the above fields (agricultural, trade, industrial, and home economics subjects), if expended, be applied to part-time schools or classes for workers over 14 years and less than 18."[2] In 1963-64, a series of meetings of vocational-technical school administrators in New Jersey resulted in a statement of principles of vocational and technical education. The first principle was:

> The program operates not only during the normal school day, but during the evening as well, and, if needed, on days and evenings when school is not normally in operation because it is organized to serve:
>
> (a) those in school
> (b) those who have discontinued their formal education and are preparing to enter the labor market
> (c) those who have already entered the labor market but need to up-grade skills or learn new ones
> (d) those with special handicaps
> (e) those who are disadvantaged.[3]

Today in New Jersey there are more than fifty AVTS facilities which operate under 20 County Boards of Vocational Education. All Boards provide some adult programming.

Clientele and Programming

According to reports and interviews related to the four selected AVTSs, high school components of AVTSs may be run under a shared-time or full-time arrangement: Some, such as Middlesex, enroll students from the various school districts of the county on a full-time basis only, with students spending a half-day in shop or laboratory work and a half-day in academic and related subjects at an AVTS facility. Others, such as Mercer, teach only vocational courses and students spend a half-day in their sending school districts studying academic subjects. Somerset has a combined arrangement, some students being full-time and some shared-time. Burlington is primarily a full-time AVTS, but special needs students take their academic work in comprehensive high schools and spend only a half-day at the AVTS. Several AVTSs, for example, Middlesex and Mercer, have "special needs" wings or buildings for handicapped students. Some, such as Mercer, enroll only 11th and 12th grade students. Some, including Middlesex and Mercer offer twilight programs in late afternoon and summer programs for students who are unable to attend as regular students. Middlesex has four fully equipped mobile education units which serve Middlesex County sending districts and the Middlesex County Detention Home.

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[1] N.J. Statutes Annotated, Title 18A:54-3, 54-32.

[2] Jochen, p. 31.

[3] Ibid., p. 26.

A comparison of vocational-technical high school students with students in comprehensive high schools indicates that some AVTSs tend to enroll students with lower than average academic ability and others do not. For example, according to available data, 42 percent of Somerset AVTS high school students are educationally disadvantaged, while sending school districts in that county enroll between 1 and 28 percent such students in grades 7-12.[1] In comparison, only 11 percent of the Middlesex AVTS high school students are educationally disadvantaged, compared with a county-wide average of 22 percent.[2] Also the dropout rate for Middlesex AVTS students is lower than for students in other county high schools.[3] The Burlington AVTS superintendent explained that AVTS students in that county are on a par with other high school students in the county, but that only a few AVTS graduates go to college. In that county, students are accepted by the AVTS on a competitive basis, and twice as many students apply than can be accepted. Criteria used for accepting students include academic records and recommendations from former teachers. The variation in the caliber of high school students enrolled in AVTS schools apparently reflects the general public's attitude toward vocational education in the various counties. In Somerset, according to several persons interviewed, vocational education is not held in very high esteem. More families have higher incomes and want their children to excel academically and go to college. Middlesex, they say, is a much more industrial county, people there tend to be more trade-minded, and career interests of students tend to be in vocational and technical areas more frequently.

Regarding postsecondary and adult clientele, vocational-technical schools have geared their programming to persons they have assumed are not interested in college degrees. One superintendent said that the people who attended his school were not interested in college degrees. An apprentice coordinator at another school (Somerset) commented, "You don't need a degree to hammer nails," and objected to "intellectualizing" manual skills. AVTSs are currently being encouraged by the State Division of Vocational Education to establish joint programs with the community colleges in their counties so that students might earn college credit leading to an Associate's Degree for the training they receive there. Such an arrangement already exists in Somerset County and joint agreements are being negotiated in other counties as well. There does, however, seem to be some resistence to this practice on the part of AVTS faculty and administrators, as evidenced by comments such as those just cited. This issue will be discussed in more detail in a later section of this chapter.

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[1] Somerset County Plan for Career Development 1977-1978, (Somerville: Somerset County Career Education Coordinating Council, Somerset County Office of Education), p. B20.

[2] Middlesex County Plan for Career Development 1977-78, (New Brunswick: Middlesex County Career Education Coordinating Council, Middlesex County Office of Education), p. B33.

[3] Ibid., p. B14.

Apprentice training is a major component of AVTS offerings. Apprenticeship is the acquisition of an occupation involving manual, mechanical, or technical skills, requiring at least two years (usually four) of on-the-job training, supplemented by an appropriate amount of related training in theoretical and practical knowledge (usually 144 hours per year), conducted in a classroom or by correspondence, carried out in accordance with an agreement voluntarily entered into between the apprentice and the training sponsor (employer or union), and culminating in a certificate of completion as a journeyman.[1] In New Jersey, this certificate is jointly awarded by the Division of Vocational Education, N. J. Deptment of Education and the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, U.S. Department of Labor. Official training programs operate under the "Joint Approval Plan" which requires that they be approved by both agencies.[2] According to interviewees, nearly all classroom training programs are offered by the AVTSs where 8500 apprentices were enrolled in 1976-1977.

Apprenticeable occupations are those that have been accepted by the Federal Committee on Apprenticeship, and in most cases, the apprenticeable titles have been identified by nine-digit codes as listed in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles. The list of apprenticeable occupations, however, is not to be considered final or all-inclusive, because changes are constantly being made to keep pace with technological advances in industry. Below is the 1972 list of apprenticeable occupations.[3] Some have sub-occupations, but these are not included because of the extensiveness of the list. Table 1, which follows the list, identifies the crafts in which the four selected AVTSs provided training in 1977-1978.

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[1] Apprenticeship Training in New Jersey (A Research Study conducted at Fairleigh Dickenson University for the New Jersey Department of Education and Department of Labor and Industry, June, 1973), p. 1.

[2] Apprentice Program Coordinator's Manual (Trenton: State of New Jersey, Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education, revised October, 1975), p. 51 ff.

[3] The National Apprenticeship Program (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, rev. 1972), p. 9 ff.

Aircraft Fabricator
Airplane Mechanic
Arborist
Asbestos Worker
Automotive Body Builder-Repairman
Automotive Mechanic
Baker
Barber
Blacksmith
Boilermaker
Bookbinder
Brewer
Bricklayer
Butcher-Meat Cutter
Cabinet maker - Millman
Candy Maker
Canvas Worker
Carman
Carpenter
Cement Mason
Chemical-Process Operator
Cook
Cooper
Cosmetician
Dairy-Products Maker
Draftsman-Designer
Dry Cleaner, Spotter, and Presser
Electrical Worker
Electroplater
Electrotyper
Engraver
Fabric Cutter
Farm-Equipment Mechanic
Fire Fighter
Floor Coverer
Foundryman
Furrier
Glazier-Glass Worker
Heat Treater
Iron Worker
Jeweler
Laboratory Technician
Lather
Lead Burner
Leather Worker
Lithographer
Machinist
Mailer
Maintenance Mechanic-Repairman
Marking-Device Maker
Mattress Maker, Custom
Metal Polisher-and-Buffer
Miller
Millwright
Model Maker
Musical-Instrument Mechanic
Operating Engineer
Optical Technician
Paint Maker
Painter-and-Decorator
Patternmaker
Photoengraver
Photographer
Plasterer
Plate Printer
Plumber-Pipe Fitter
Pottery Worker
Printing Pressman
Rigger
River Pilot
Roofer
Rotogravure Engraver
Sheet-Metal Worker
Sign, Scene-and-Pictorial Artist
Silversmith
Stationary Engineer
Stereotyper
Stone Worker
Stonemason
Stove Mounter
Tailor
Telephone Worker
Terrazzo Worker
Textile Technician Mechanic
Tile Setter
Tool-and-Die Maker
Upholsterer
Wallpaper Craftsman
Wire Weaver
Wood Carver

Table 1
Crafts in Which Four New Jersey County AVTSs
Provided Apprentice Training in 1977-78

Craft	Somerset	Burlington	Mercer	Middlesex
Technical				
Architectural Technology				X
Chemical Technology				X
Electrical Technology				X
Electronic Technology				X
Instrumental Technology				X
Mechanical Technology	X			
Metallurgical Technology	X			
Trades and Industry				
Air Conditioning	X	X		X
Air Conditioning & Refrigeration			X	
Body & Fender Repair	X		X	X
Auto Mechanics		X	X	X
Blueprint Reading		X		
Carpentry	X	X	X	X
Electricity	X	X	X	X
Masonry			X	X
Plumbing & Pipefitting	X	X	X	X
Other Construction & Maintenance Trades			X	
Diesel Mechanic	X		X	
Electrical Occupations	X			X
Graphic Arts Occupations			X	
Instrument Maintenance & Repair Occupations			X	
Ironworker			X	
Machine Shop	X	X		X
Machine Tool Operations		X		X
Millwright			X	
Oil Burner Service			X	
Painting				X
Sheet Metal			X	X
Welding & Cutting			X	X
Tool & Die Making			X	
Other Metal working Occupations				X

SOURCE: Individual AVTS reports to N.J. Dept. of Education, Division of Vocational Education, "Enrollments in Vocational Education Programs," May 1978.

While minorities seem to be well-represented in apprenticeship programs in New Jersey (about 17 percent in 1976-1977), very few women are enrolled (about one-half of one precent).[1] Although the government requires sponsors to have affirmative action programs, there does not seem to be much enthusiasm among vocational educators for enrolling women. One director of an AVTS evening program thought that those women who did enroll did so only to prove something to their husbands and boyfriends, and usually dropped out. And while there can be no age discrimination, building trade apprentices tend to be young (18-28) and industrial trade apprentices range from young to middle-aged (18-50) according to an AVTS program director.

Non-apprentice training offered by vocational-technical schools may be in series of courses taken over a several year period similar to apprentice training, offering certificates at the conclusion, or may be isolated courses in vocational skills. General areas of training include Agriculture, Distribution, Health, Occupational Home Economics, Office/Business Education, Technical, and Trades and Industry. Federal legislation recognizes Homemaking and Consumer Education as a vocational area, and some vocational-technical schools offer courses in this area as well, although these are not taken for job training purposes. The State enrollment reporting form differentiates between this area from Occupational Home Economics. Table 2 indicates the enrollment reported to the State Department of Education by each of the four selected AVTSs for each curriculum area. Footnotes to the table list courses in the areas actually offered by one or more of the four AVTSs. Only 16 percent of the students who attended these four schools in 1977-1978 were reported as enrolling for preparatory (job entry level) instruction, while the remaining 84 percent were reported as enrolling for supplementary (continuing) education purposes. Thus, the vast majority of AVTS vocational education (non-apprentice) evening students are already working in the area in which they seek training and are looking for skill improvement and/or advancement. (Apprentices would also fall into this category, although they are working as trainees and do not receive the full salary of trained craftsmen.) According to enrollment figures from one school and a graduation list from another, few women apparently enroll for training in traditionally male trades, and few men enroll in areas such as nursing, secretarial, or cosmetology.

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[1] Memorandum from Andrew M. Boyko, Director, Apprenticeship Training, New Jersey Department of Education (May 9, 1977).

Table 2
Adult Education Enrollments in Four New Jersey AVTSs in Eight Vocational Education Curriculum Areas, 1977-78

Curriculum Area	Enrollments			
	Somerset	Burlington	Mercer	Middlesex
Agriculture[a]	21	30	-	47
Distribution[b]	119	-	-	-
Health[c]	54	-	368	84
Homemaking & Consumer Ed.[d]	-	-	250	-
Occupational Home Economics[e]	-	-	22	657
Office/Business Ed.[f]	112	84	98	179
Technical[g]	69	549	-	838
Trades & Industry[h]	1141	918	959	2492
Total	1516	1581	1697	4297

SOURCE: From individual AVTS reports to N.J. State Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education, "Enrollment in Vocational Education Programs," May 1978.

[a] Courses include only Ornamental Horticulture.

[b] Courses include Food Distribution and Cooking.

[c] Courses include Practical Nursing (LPN), Nursing Assistant (Aide), Medical Assistant, Health Aide, Math for LPNs.

[d] Individual courses not identified.

[e] Courses include Clothing Management, Production and Services; Food Management, Production and Services; Home Furnishing, Equipment and Services, Institutional and Home Management and Services; Food Service Supervision.

[f] Courses include Accounting and Computer Operations; Personnel Training and Related Occupations; Steno, Secretarial and Related Occupations; Supervisory and Administrative Management Occupations; Typing and Related Occupations; Business Occupations.

[g] Courses include Aeronautical, Architectural, Chemical, Civil Electronic, Electromechanical, Environmental Control, Industrial, Instrumental, Mechanical, Metallurgical, Fire and Fire Safety, and Water and Waste Water Technologies.

[h] Courses include Air Conditioning, Appliance Repair, Body and Fender Repair, Auto Mechanics, Blueprint Reading, Commercial Art Occupation, Commercial Photography Occupations, Carpentry, Electricity, Masonry, Plumbing and Pipefitting, Other Construction and Maintenance Trades, Diesel Mechanic, Drafting Occupations, Electrical Occupations, Electronic Occupations, Fabric Maintenance Services, Foremanship Supervisor and Management Development, Graphic Arts Occupations, Machine Shop, Machine Tool Operations, Sheet Metal, Welding and Cutting, Tool and Die Making, Other Metalworking Occupations, Cosmetology, Other Personal Services, Quantity Food Occupations, Small Engine Repair, Stationary Energy Sources Occupations, Upholstering, Air Conditioning and Refrigeration, Oil Burner Service, Drywall Tapers.

Although most students who enroll in AVTS evening schools do so for job preparation or upgrading, some take courses for general self-improvement or leisure purposes. Courses such as the homemaking and home economics, typing and other business courses, auto mechanics, small machine repair, landscaping, and art may fall into this category. Some AVTSs, however, seem to be putting increasing priority on vocational programs. Somerset, for example, has attempted to attract the general public in the past by offering the shorter 10 to 30 hour avocational courses, but found itself in competition with comprehensive adult schools and has decided to develop a greater, almost exclusive, emphasis on bona fide job training.

In addition to evening offerings, most AVTSs have daytime practical nurse (LPN) training. This involves a year of full-time study, about half classroom instruction and half hospital experience. When the Burlington County AVTS System began in 1965, postsecondary LPN training was the first program offered, since no facilities were needed for it. The hospital provided a classroom for the academic portion of training, and the remainder of the training was on hospital floors.

Some AVTSs also have an institute or a skills center component which operates during the day. Somerset County AVTS for example, operates the Somerset County Technical Institute, which offers postsecondary programs in technologies, health, and secretarial. Somerset's technology programs are two-year programs in Automotive, Electronic and Mechanical, Diesel, Construction, Welding, and Air Conditioning, Refrigeration and Heating Technologies. College credit for technology courses taken at the Institute is awarded by Somerset County College. Students may take related academic subjects at the Institute as non-credit courses or academic courses at Somerset County College for credit. If they take the later option, they may get an Associate's Degree from the college on completion. The health (mostly LPN) and secretarial programs are one year in length. Somerset enrolled nearly 300, mostly full-time postsecondary students in 1977-78. The students in the technology programs are mostly young male high school graduates, while the health and secretarial programs enroll virtually all female students, a large proportion of whom are over 25 years of age.[1]

Mercer County AVTS operates an Adult Vocational Technical Center (AVTC) in Trenton which is open to any county resident, but which serves mostly CETA clients. This former Manpower Skills Center located in an old factory offers entry level training in Clerical, Graphics, Auto Mechanics, Auto Body, Welding, Refrigeration and Air Conditioning, and Distributive Education along with Developmental Reading and Math and Related Education. Most enrollees are young and are receiving training for entry level positions, courses being 20 to 24 weeks in length. The center trained 559 students in these courses during the 1977-78 school year. In addition, about 80 practical nurses were trained at a local hospital under the aegis of the AVTC.

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[1] Allison Jackson, "Developing Hearts, Hands, and Minds", (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers, The State University, Vocational-Technical Curriculum Lab, 1976), p. 36

In summary, AVTSs serve a wide clientele—high school students, special needs students, young adults, CETA clients, workers, women, older adults—at a variety of times—full-time and half-time day, evening, as well as twilight hours (4-6 P.M.)—in a variety of programs—entry level for high school students and young adults, continuing education and apprenticeships for upgrading, as well as refresher courses and homemaking. Although secondary education is the primary mission of these schools, they are extensively involved with adult education, and consider it an essential component of their schools. Clientele have generally been considered to have little interest in obtaining college degrees, but there seems to be a growing change in this viewpoint as will be discussed later. There is little evidence that persons of either sex are enrolling in nontraditional areas of occupational training, or that it is encouraged.

Philosophy and Mission of AVTSs

The Vocational Amendments of 1976, Title II (PL 94-482) states as the purpose of federal funding

> to assist states in improving planning in the use of all resources available to them for vocational education and manpower training by involving a wide range of agencies and individuals concerned with education and training within the State in the development of the vocational education plans ... so that persons of all ages in all communities of the State, those in high schools, those who have completed or discontinued their formal education and are preparing to enter the labor market, those who have already entered the labor market, but need to upgrade their skills or learn new ones, those with special educational handicaps, and those in postsecondary schools, will have ready access to vocational training or retraining which is of high quality, which is realistic in the light of actual or anticipated opportunities for gainful employment, and which is suited to their needs, interests, and ability to benefit from such training.

The above excerpt reflects the basic philosophy of the legislation, that provides substantial funding for vocational education programs. Three important points related to linkages among providers of adult vocational education are included:

1) that vocational training should be provided for adults and out-of-school youth, as well as for high school students;

2) that all agencies concerned with vocational training should be involved in planning;

3) that vocational training programs should prepare people for jobs that really exist (thus, linkage with employers).

The 23 principles articulated by New Jersey vocational educators in 1964 also reflect this philosophy, and elaborate on it. They state that vocational education administrators should have an understanding of the needs of both youth and adults as well as the needs of the occupational community; further, they should be able to work effectively with employers, labor, school authorities, employment security, social agencies, and other public and private agencies concerned with worker education and training. Teachers should be recruited from the world of work so that they have sufficient and varied practical experience in the occupations they are to teach and they should be outstanding workers in their fields. The instructional program should relate the practical to the theoretical through lab or shop training and related academic instruction. Further, the curriculum should reflect changing employment and training needs and should be broad enough to give a choice of study to both youth and adults. Course content should be based on occupational analyses to determine work skills, related technical theory, health and safety, human relations, labor-management, and communication skills actually required in the world of work. Advisory committees that are truly representative of the occupational community are used as consultants for such services as determining occupational needs, establishing or discontinuing programs, securing faculty, recruiting students, assisting in placement and follow-up of students, and in continuous evaluation of program, equipment and facilities. Finally, a vocational program should serve a geographic area large enough to support both a day and evening program offering a wide variety of occupational choices at semi-skilled, skilled, technical, and semi-professional levels.[1]

These statements from legislation and the principles of vocational education in New Jersey are ideals carried out to varying degrees by individual AVTSs. On the whole, however, linkages with employers and trained workers in the various curriculum areas of the AVTSs, and the priority placed on training adults and out-of-school youths—both high school graduates and non-graduates—appear to be more extensive than for most other public school systems in New Jersey. A State Education Department official agreed with this perception. He said that there is wide variance in the degree to which individual AVTSs adhere to these principles, and that much depends upon the make-up of the local Board of Education and personalities and philosophies of local AVTS officials. Some Boards encourage and facilitate linkages with the trade and industrial community, and many AVTS administrators come from and remain actively involved in trade organizations and seek to retain and develop both informal and formal communication channels. Others foster linkages with trade and industry to a minimal degree and on a purely formal and routine basis. Linkages between AVTSs and other providers of vocational training appear to be minimal, as will be discussed later.

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[1] Jochen, pp. 26-29.

Administrative Structure and Staffing

The County Area Vocational Technical School Systems in New Jersey operate under a County AVTS Board of Education with a superintendent appointed by that Board. By law,[1] they operate in a manner similar to other public school systems, except that they serve an entire county rather than a single municipality or group of municipalities. As does any other Board of Education, the County Vocational Schools Boards report to the State Department of Education.

It should be mentioned that in addition to the County AVTSs, there are also AVTSs administered by fifteen comprehensive Boards of Education. One such exists in Mercer County under the Trenton Board of Education. Also, there are career education programs that are part of comprehensive high schools, but these are generally characterized as industrial arts rather than truly vocational, that is, they offer programs in which students spend less time in occupational training and more time in academic studies than do students in the AVTSs, and receive training in a variety of trade skills rather than intensive training in one trade.

County Area Vocational-Technical School Systems may have one or more school buildings to serve various parts of the county. Middlesex County, for example, has five schools, Mercer has two high schools and an Adult Vocational-Technical Center, Burlington has just added a second high school building, and Somerset has a High School and a Technical Institute which operate separately but are in adjoining buildings. Generally, each building has a principal and teaching staff which reports to him/her.

Most County AVTSs have relatively large adult/postsecondary enrollments, but evening programs, generally called "adult" programs, usually operate separately from daytime secondary and postsecondary programs. There is usually one director, coordinator or supervisor of adult evening schools with part-time principals to supervise evening programs if the AVTS offers programs in more than one building. Middlesex has evening classes in three of its five buildings, and has a principal to supervise each. Mercer also has three such principals, who supervise classes in the two high school buildings and in the Trenton AVTS, where it also operates evening programs. Burlington presently uses only one of its buildings for evening classes. Somerset used both the Institute and the High School Buildings and is overseen by the Supervisor of Adult Continuing Education, who reports to the Administrator of the Technical Institute. Until recently, Somerset's evening supervisor reported directly to the superintendent, but this change was made in an effort to unify the day and evening adult/postsecondary programs. In Mercer, Middlesex, and Burlington the evening school director/coordinator reports directly to the superintendent or his assistant. This arrangement gives the evening school operation more autonomy and less interaction with other AVTS programs, and may appear to give it more prestige. However, the Somerset evening supervisor felt that their arrangement gave more prestige to the adult evening program because day and evening adult/postsecondary programs could now be coordinated and postsecondary programs could be offered in the evening as well as the daytime thus opening up the possibility of offering college credit toward Associate's Degrees to evening students through joint programs with the county college. The Institute administrator, however, said he felt torn between offering traditional types of non-credit evening programs and moving toward a totally postsecondary program, for cerdit only. The later arrangement would be easier to administer, he pointed out, but would perhaps not meet the needs of many adult students such as apprentices.

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[1] New Jersey Statutes Annotated, Title 18A, Chapter 54.

Apprentice Coordinators, who oversee the training of apprentices for the entire county are appointed at each County AVTS, and are generally a part of the adult evening school staff. In Middlesex and Somerset they act as assistants to the evening school director/supervisor. In Mercer, the apprentice coordinator reports to the Industry/Community Relations Coordinator for the district, who reports to the superintendent, but the apprentice coordinator acts as a liaison with the adult evening schools coordinator. In Burlington the evening program director himself acts as the apprentice coordinator. Although apprentice coordinators are hired by and given assignments by the County AVTS Board of Education, they act as representatives of the State Department of Education in carrying out certain responsibilites, such as recommending employers' apprentice programs for approval and registering apprentices and keeping records on them.

Full-time day postsecondary programs generally operate separately from adult evening programs. The Adult Vo-Tech Center in Mercer County has its own principal. The Nurse Coordinator reports to him, but supervises the LPN training program independently since it is located at Donnelly Hospital, a separate facility. In Somerset, the Technical Institute Administrator operates full-time programs in health, secretarial, and technologies with coordinators who report to him assigned to each of the three areas. In Middlesex there is a Coordinator of Health Occupations Programs, who supervises and coordinates a large LPN program which utilizes four school buildings and twenty hospitals for training facilities. She also coordinates other health occupations courses and programs offered in the high schools and the adult evening schools. She reports to the assistant superintendent, but often deals directly with the superintendent. In addition, Middlesex has a policy of accepting adults as students in their high school programs when high school classes are not filled. About 300 such students (including 150 practical nursing students) enrolled in programs in four Middlesex Vo-Tech High Schools during the 1976-1977 school year.[1] These adult students are under the supervision of the high school principals and their staffs.

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[1] Annual Report to the Board of Education of the Vocational Schools in the County of Middlesex, State of New Jersey, for the School Year 1976-1977, p. 79.

Teachers in vocational-technical schools are expected to have extensive experience working in their occupational fields. Until recently, such persons could become certified as vo-tech teachers with a minimum of teacher training and without a college degree. Within a few years, a college degree will also be required. All adult education teachers at vo-tech schools, including those who teach non-vocational courses, must be certified as vocational teachers. In order to get a temporary, part-time certificate and be hired a potential teacher must demonstrate expertise in his/her field. After five years of teaching and a teaching methods course they may obtain a permanent part-time certificate. This is a point of contention among AVTS adult evening program directors; two of them complained that other adult schools do not have to hire certified teachers and so do not have to pay their teachers as much. This is one reason why Somerset has decided to pull out of the non-vocational domain. (According to state officials, this regulation has just been changed. Teachers in adult school courses labeled as vocational and that receive state vocational funding must also have vocational certification.)

Financing

The budgets of County AVTSs must be approved by the Board of School Estimate (a committee comprised of Freeholders and Board of Education members) in larger counties and by the Board of Chosen Freeholders in all counties.[1] Funds are raised through real estate taxes, tuition, and state and federal funding available to AVTSs on a reimbursement basis. Per pupil state aid is awarded by formula on the same basis as it is to other public schools. This is based on enrollment in secondary and postsecondary programs (but not on part-time adult enrollments) and on other factors.[2] Local (county) support is also provided in the same manner as it is for other public schools—through real estate levies.

Federal Vocational Education funds are also a major source of support for AVTSs. The state allocates these funds to counties using several separate formulas for programs for the Disadvantaged, for the Handicapped, and for Cooperative Education, Consumer and Homemaking, and Regular Vocational Education—all on the secondary level—and for Adult and Postsecondary Programs.[3] Two funding matrices (state forms on which allocations for each funding category must be indicated) are used at the county level—one for secondary programs and one for adult and postsecondary. For secondary programs there are four formula allocations while for adult and postsecondary programs there is just one applicable formula allocation, which amounts to 15 percent of the total vocational education funding.[1] Beginning with their county bottom line allocation figures for each formula, funding priority agreements are made by members of the County Career Education Coordinating Council who are representatives of the various potential recipients of funding. This process results in assignments of dollar values to each curriculum area.[2] These curriculum areas are shown on the Postsecondary Funding Matrix in Exhibit 1.

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[1] N.J. Statutes Annotated, Title 18A, Chapter 54.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Planning and Operational Handbook for County Career Education Coordinating Councils, (State of New Jersey, Department of Education, October, 1977), pp. 23-33.

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[1] Vocational Education Post-secondary County Entitlement Formula, F.Y. 1979. (State of New Jersey, Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education).

[2] Guidelines for Completing Applications for Federal Vocational Education Funds (P.L. 94-482) for Fiscal Year 1978, School Year 1977-78 (Trenton: New Jersey Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education), p. 12.

Exhibit 1

Post Secondary Vocational Education Funding Matrix Fiscal Year 197_

Date ____________________ ______________________________ County

Program Area	Funds Available
Agriculture	
Distributive Education	
Health Occupations	
Home Economics	
Consumer Education & Homemaking	
Office Occupations	
Technical Education	
Vocational Industrial Ed.	
Introduction to Vocations	
Apprentice	

TOTAL

SOURCE: Planning and Operational Handbook for County Career Education Coordinating Councils (State of N.J., Dept. of Education, October 1977), p.33.

Individual schools submit applications to the State Department of Education for funding of their programs after being informed of the amounts allocated to the various curriculum areas by their County Councils. There they are rank-ordered by computer based upon objective criteria, and then reviewed by Vocational Division program specialists, who recommend specific school programs for funding, in accordance with priorities established by each Council and State guidelines, to the State Director of Vocational Education, who decides how much each school will get.[1] According to state officials, the Councils have no formal say in which of their schools will be funded for each curriculum/program area or how much they will receive, although informal agreements are made by the Councils on who will apply for fundings in each area. These decisions are informally relayed to state officials who try to see that the wishes of the Councils are carried out.

According to federal legislation, at least 15 percent of each state's vocational education allotment must be used for adult and postsecondary programs.[2] The Rules and Regulations specify that postsecondary programs are for persons who have completed or left high school, and are enrolled in organized programs of study for which credit is given toward an associate or other degree, but not a baccalaureate or higher degree; and adult programs are for persons who have already entered the labor market, are unemployed, or who have completed or left high school and are enrolled in organized programs of study for which credit is not given toward an associate or other degree.[3] Prior to the recent change in the definitions and related regulations, only community colleges and AVTSs were eligible for postsecondary funding. Now comprehensive adult schools also compete for the funding. The formula used for allocating this money to the counties is based upon county unemployment rate (weight 20%), per capita income (weight 30%), and county population (weight 50%).[4] Based upon this allotment Middlesex receives 6.38 percent of the total state allotment, Burlington gets 4.63 percent, Mercer gets 4.19 percent and Somerset gets 3.14 percent of the state's money. Other counties receive the remaining 81.66 percent of New Jersey's federal allotment.[5] Middlesex gets the fourth largest allocation in the state—Essex, Bergen, and Hudson getting more. Somerset gets the fourth lowest allocation—Warren, Sussex, and Hunterdon getting less; however since Hunterdon County has no county college, some of its postsecondary money goes to Somerset, which serves the Hunterdon area.

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[1] Guidelines for Completing Vocational Education Applications, 1978, pp.12-13.

[2] Vocational Education Act, 1976 Amendments, P.L. 94-482, Section 110(c).

[3] Vocational Education Act, 1976 Amendments.

[4] Vocational Education Post-secondary County Entitlement Formula, F.Y. 1979.

[5] Ibid.

Adult postsecondary funding is handled separately from secondary funding, but in a similar manner. A standing subcommittee of each County Career Education Coordinating Council, comprised of the community college president and his/her representative, the county vo-tech school superintendent or his/her representative, the Council chair, the county superintendent of schools, the county career education coordinator, and one other person who may be appointed if appropriate (this could be an adult school director) determines priorities using the funding matrix in Exhibit 1, apportioning the county adult/postsecondary allotment among the program areas listed.[1] Which applicants will get how much funding is decided officially by representatives of the State Department of Education and the State Department of Higher Education.

According to information provided by the State Department of Education, the four AVTSs will receive the following amounts in federal adult/postsecondary funding during FY 1979: Somerset AVTS will get the greatest amount by far, $103,182, in spite of the fact that Somerset County as a whole gets the least of the four counties in total adult/postsecondary vocational education monies; Middlesex County, which gets the largest amount, will have only $57,401 going to its AVTS; Mercer and Burlington AVTSs will receive $56,952 and $41,660 respectively (see Table 3).

Since Somerset AVTS is the only one of four that have a postsecondary institute, and most of this institute's programs are part of a joint agreement with the county college whereby college credit and degrees can be awarded to participants, it apparently has an advantage over other AVTSs in competing for adult/postsecondary monies. In that county, the county college offers relatively few career-oriented programs in comparison with other county colleges, partly because Somerset County Technical Institute was in existence before the college. Thus, the money that in other counties goes to support college technology programs is awarded to the AVTS in Somerset County. Also, extra money is awarded to joint AVTS community college degree programs as an incentive for establishment of such programs. SCTI, however, will be required to share some of that allocation with the community college according to terms of the joint agreement. It is important to note, however, that none of Somerset's 1979 vocational education grants are for adult evening programs, according to information provided by state officials. In Mercer County, which also has what is referred to as a postsecondary education center, the Adult Vocational-Technical Center, only a small portion of the AVTSs adult/postsecondary grant will be for adult evening programs—only $1344 (2%) to pay part of the salaries of three evening office occupations instructors. The remainder of its grant is earmarked for salaries and equipment of AVTC daytime programs. On the other hand, the majority of grant monies awarded to Middlesex and Burlington are designated for salary costs for evening courses. Only the funding for Health Occupations will be used to support full-time day programs (LPN training). Thus, 74 percent ($35,000) and 84 percent ($42,300) of Middlesex's and Burlington's grants, respectively, are for support of adult evening programs.

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[1] Annual and Five Year State Plan for Vocational Education in New Jersey, Fiscal Year 1978, (Trenton: State of New Jersey, Department of Education, May 1977), p. 84.

Apparently, then, AVTSs which have fewer postsecondary daytime programs/enrollments are at an advantage in getting supplementary funding for their adult evening programs.

Table 3

Adult/Postsecondary Federal Vocational Education Fundings for Four AVTSs, 1978-79

	Somerset	Burlington	Mercer	Middlesex
Agriculture	-	$ 390	-	$ 581
Distributive Education	-	-	$ 6,295	-
Health Occupations	$10,000	6,626	10,000	15,080
Home Economics	-	-	-	413
Consumer Education & Homemaking	-	-	-	-
Office Occupations	10,000	2,535	14,820	-
Technical Education	83,182	5,999	-	4,877
Vocational Industrial Education	-	18,110	25,837	13,128
Introduction to Vocations	-	-	-	-
Apprentice	-	8,000	-	23,322
Total	$103,182	$41,660	$56,952	$57,401

SOURCE: Information provided by the N.J. State Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education, May 1978.

Besides this federal funding for vocational education (which includes some state matching money) AVTS evening schools are eligible for State vocational education funding under Chpater 54 of New Jersey's Education Law. Up to $10,000 in matching funds may be awarded for each building in a district in which part-time (under 15 hours per week) evening vocational programs are held. Some AVTSs also get money for their adult school director's salary under Chapter 219 of New Jersey Education Law. They may receive two-thirds of a director's salary up to $12,000 if they offer courses in enough curriculum areas other than vocational. Somerset has received this funding, for several years and Mercer has just recently expanded its program in order to become eligible.

Burlington's offerings are too limited to receive this funding, and although Middlesex would be eligible curriculum-wise, it has not chosen to meet other requirements for the funding.

The amount of tuition charged to students varies among the AVTSs. Mercer and Middlesex do not charge tuition, but do charge a $5 or $10 registration fee and lab fees of $5 or $10 for some courses. The Mercer brochure notes that the school is supported by taxation. Burlington and Somerset, on the other hand, charge tuition and lab fees amounting to $30 to $50 for most 39-hour (one semester) courses. The Somerset superintendent explained that lower rates of support are responsible for their higher fees. Since Mercer and Somerset receive little or no federal vocational education support for their evening programs, while Middlesex and Mercer do, it appears that Mercer provides the most and Burlington the least from county taxes. This is difficult to ascertain, however, since there are many variables and sources of funding, and support for adult evening programs is generally not identified as a separate item on AVTS budgets. One superintendent, in fact, said he tries to bury the cost of adult programs in his budget because it is so high and he fears they may be singled out for cutbacks by his Board of Education.

AVTSs and Adult Vocational Education in New Jersey

In general, adult/postsecondary education is an important component of most AVTSs in New Jersey. Nearly all offer one-year LPN programs, some have other full-time day postsecondary programs, and nearly all have extensive part-time evening (adult) programs in vocational and technical areas.

Although AVTS evening program offerings are primarily in vocational and technical areas, they sometimes offer courses in non-vocational areas as well. According to the State Director of Adult/Continuing/Community Education, AVTSs are generally reluctant to offer courses in non-vocational areas, but some do so in order to obtain a partial salary reimbursement for their Director of Adult Education under Chapter 219 funding. The New Jersey Administrative Code requires that in order to be eligible, a school must demonstrate that it has done planning for "comprehensive" adult education programming, requiring offerings in at least six of the following fifteen curriculum areas: Adult Basic Education, High School Education, Vocational Education, Civic and Public Affairs Education, Literature and Language Education, Leadership Training and Group Relations Education, Health Safety and Physical Education, Music and Dramatic Education, Driver and Pedestrain Education, Consumer and Homemaking Education, Family Life Education, Mathematics and Science Education, Arts and Crafts Education, and Avocational Education. (The categories have been revised as of May 1978, those just mentioned being the new ones. Old categories were used for the 1976-77 program enrollment reporting discussed below and shown in Table 4. The old categories were not discrete, and "vocational" has been redefined to include Agriculture/Agri-business, Distributive Education, Health Occupations, Occupational Home Economics, Business and Office Education, Technical Education.) Using the old taxonomy, it is not possible to identify enrollments in two areas (Office Practice and Distributive Education, and Homemaking and Family Education) as vocational or non-vocational, since those preparing for occupations in home economics areas such as child care, cooking, and serving are combined with students of homemaking, consumer education, and family education; and courses such as typing for personal use (frequently offered in comprehensive adult schools) are combined with business courses for job preparation. This lack of differentiation between vocational and non-vocational courses in the traditionally female areas of business and home economics could be seen as an indication of general adult educators' lack of understanding of vocational education as well as a lack of seriousness given to job preparation for women. The redefinition might be interpreted as a sign of growing awareness in both areas. If, however, it is assumed that virtually all AVTS enrollments in Office Practice and Distributive Education and at least half of those in Homemaking and Family Education are vocational—and this seems reasonable based on interviews and examination of brochures—then more than three-fourths of AVTS evening students in 1977-1978 (exclusive of those in apprentice training) were enrolled in vocational training, and about one-fourth took non-vocational courses. If apprentice enrollments are added—40 for Burlington, 340 for Mercer, 730 for Middlesex, 150 for Somerset, and 8500 statewide[1]—then the non-vocational enrollment of the AVTSs is reduced to about 20 percent statewide, ranging from 0 and 3 percent, respectively, for Burlington and Mercer to 21 and 26 percent, respectively, for Middlesex and Somerset. Table 5 shows the number of AVTS evening programs which offered courses in each of the curriculum areas. It is clear from these data, that although AVTS evening programs include the entire gamut of adult school curriculum offerings, courses in non-vocational areas make up a significant but relatively small portion of their curriculum.

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[1] Data provided by the N.J. Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education, based on 1977-78 program reports submitted by AVTSs, May 1978.

Table 4

Percentage of Enrollments of Four AVTS Evening Schools and All New Jersey AVTS Enrollments in Various Program Areas, 1976-77

		Burlington AVTS	Mercer AVTS	Middlesex AVTS	Somerset AVTS	All N.J. AVTSs[a]
Vocational & Technical		100	77	66	68	64
Office Practice & Distributive Ed[b]		-	15	4	4	8
Homemaking & Family Ed[c]		-	8	11	-	7
Health Safety & Phys Ed		-	-	7	9	6
Civic & Public Affairs		-	-	-	17	4
Avocational		-	-	3	-	3
High School Completion		-	-	2	-	2
Ldrshp Trng & Grp Rlatns		-	-	*	-	2
Arts & Crafts		-	-	7	-	2
Adult Basic Ed		-	-	-	-	2
Naturalization Ed		-	-	-	2	1
Other[d]		-	-	-	-	*
Totals	Percent	100	100	100	100	100
	Enrollment	2865	2529	4863	2543	48,801

SOURCE: "Community Adult Education Program Enrollment, Local School District and County Institution Data by Fifteen Curriculum Areas, Year Ending June 30, 1977," N.J. Department of Education, Bureau of Adult/Continuing/Community Education.

*Less than 1%.

[a] Camden and Monmouth enrollments not included.

[b] Most of these courses are vocational, and new categories defined by N.J. Administrative Code as of May 1978 reflect this.

[c] Home Economics Occupations courses are now included under vocational education according to revised categories, while Homemaking, Consumer Education, and Family Education are not.

[d] Includes English and Literature, Foreign Languages, Music and Drama, and Driver Education.

Table 5

Number of 18 AVTS Evening Programs Offering Courses in Specified Curriculum Areas

Curriculum Area	N	Curriculum Area	N
Vocational & Technical	18	Leadership Training & Group Relations	7
Office Practice & Distributive Education	15	Arts & Crafts	7
Homemaking & Family Education	15	Civic & Public Affairs	6
Avocational	10	Naturalization	2
Health, Safety & Physical Education	9	English & Literature	2
Adult Basic Education	9	Foreign Language	2
High School Completion	7	Music & Drama	1
		Driver Education	1

SOURCE: Derived from "Community Adult Education Program Enrollment, Local School District and County Institution Data by Fifteen Curriculum Areas, Year Ending June 30, 1977," N.J. Dept. of Education, Bureau of Adult/Continuing/Community Education.

Courses and programs offered by AVTSs generally have more concentrated and extensive content than those offered at comprehensive high schools, both in their high school programs and in their adult evening programs. According to the Somerset County Career Development Plan for 1977-1978, for example, most career development courses in comprehensive high schools meet 200-250 minutes per week, while most courses offered at the Somerset County Vocational-Technical High School meet for about 650 minutes per week.[1] (According to a state official, they must meet for a minimum of 650 minutes per week.) Similarly, most evening courses offered in Somerset County's Technical Institute run for 39 or 75 hours per semester, meeting either one or two evenings per week for three hours, while most other adult school courses run for 10 to 20 hours per semester, meeting 1 1/2 to 2 hours per evening, for 5 to 10 weeks.[2] Furthermore, AVTSs have "more sophisticated equipment" and "more experienced and knowledgeable instructors" than do comprehensive high schools and adult schools according to several interviewees. They are also, according to interviewees and program borchures, more likely to offer programs (developmental series of courses) than isolated courses. Further, as already discussed, they cater more frequently to persons already working in a trade (supplementary instruction) thus providing training at a more advanced level. Interviewees at one AVTS mentioned that they were moving in the direction of programs rather than courses, and the joint agreements that are being made between AVTSs and community colleges across the state will tend to encourage this trend. It will also tend to upgrade these courses to college level where they are not already of that caliber.

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[1] *Somerset County Plan for Career Development 1977-78*, pp. c13-c28.

[2] Ibid., pp. c30-c37; various adult school and AVTS brochures.

Thus, although adult evening programs of AVTSs are similar to those of comprehensive adult schools in that they have similar funding sources, charge fees, and take a second place to high school and other full-time day programs, they play a more extensive role in adult vocational education than do comprehensive adult schools since their programs provide primarily job-related training and they provide more concentrated training than do adult schools. They also appear to have higher status, to get greater local support, and to be less marginal in relation to their parent institutions than are adult schools.

Regarding full-time day adult/postsecondary programs, some AVTSs are involved more than others. Burlington is involved only to the extent that it has an LPN training program. The superintendent there said that secondary education is his top priority and since schools are filled to capacity with high school students during the day, there is no room for CETA programs or joint college programs at the present time. The LPN program requires a minimum of school space since a large portion of the instruction takes place in a hospital setting.

Mercer County has an Adult Vocational-Technical Center which runs during the day. The principal there explained that the county decided to continue the operation after discontinuation of Manpower Development and Training Act funding because it saw a need for its services in the county and felt committed to serving the disadvantaged segment of the population served by MDTA. Currently, about 85 percent of the support for the Center comes from Trenton and Mercer County CETA prime sponsors. The remainder plus administrative costs are supported by county tax revenues. Over 400 students, mostly young adults, are served annually, with a total of 200 slots available at any one time, nearly three-fourths of which are for CETA participants. Programs provide training for entry level jobs and run five to six months. There is open enrollment and instruction is individualized. The principal's prime concern at the time of the interview was getting into a new facility, and he was confident that the county would support this venture and that they will be in a new building soon. An LPN training program, which operates out of a local hospital, is technically a part of the Center program. About 80 students enroll in this one-year training program each year, with a class beginning in September and another starting in January. There is also a part-time, two-year LPN training program which operates under the aegis of the adult evening school and enrolls about 35 students per year.

Middlesex County also seems to have a strong commitment to offering full-time day programs to persons who have left high school. About 150 LPNs are trained yearly in six classes offered in four of its five schools. There is a full-time Health Occupations Coordinator—the only such position in the state—supervising these and other health occupations programs in the school system. She reports to the superintendent and has assigned rooms in each school for her exclusive use. Although Middlesex has no postsecondary technical institute, it does have a policy of allowing postsecondary students to enroll in any of the trades or technical occupations course taught in their day school programs, according to the 1976-77 report of the superintendent.[1] These programs vary in length from one to two years. "Some shops have had to establish waiting lists for the postsecondary students and in other shops there is room for more....We have created a problem for ourselves but the need is so great that we have felt obligated to accept them wherever and whenever we could."[2] There was a total of 301 day postsecondary students enrolled in MCVTS programs, which have come to be called the Middlesex County Adult Technical Schools.[3] In June 1977, 148 Adult Technical School diplomas were awarded, 96 in practical nursing, 46 in beauty culture, and the remainder in electrical trades, upholstry, and electronics.[4] In addition, MCVTS provided training for CETA clients in Air Conditioning and Refrigeration and Clerk-Typist in Spring 1978.[5]

All of the Somerset County AVTS's full-time day adult/postsecondary programs, as well as the evening adult programs, are operated by the Somerset County Technical Institute. LPN and health technology training, secretarial, and technologies programs are one and two year programs which award certificates or Associate's Degrees in conjunction with Somerset County College on completion. Technology programs include Construction, Air Conditioning, Refrigeration and Heating, Diesel, Automotive, Electronics, Laboratory/Environmental, Mechanical Design, Welding. CETA participants enroll in these programs by individual referral. Although there have been special programs set up under CETA in the past, the superintendent prefers to have CETA students integrated with regular Institute students rather than segregated in separate programs.

Many AVTSs apparently enroll a larger number of adult and postsecondary students than high school students. As can be seen in Table 6, this was true of all of the four selected AVTSs in 1977-78. These figures, however, are somewhat distorted by the lack of distinction between full-time and part-time students at both the high school and the adult/postsecondary levels. Middlesex enrolls the largest proportion of secondary students (45%), while less than a quarter of Mercer's students are in high school; however, Mercer's high school students attend the AVTS only half-time, while Middlesex enrolls primarily full-time students. While Mercer has the highest proportion of post-secondary students, this figure includes a large CETA program in which courses run only six months and there is a high drop-out rate. In all four schools, adult (evening) enrollments total at least half of the total enrollments. While these students are virtually all part-time, most attend two nights per week for 3 to 4 hours each night and many have committed themselves to four-year programs of study. While it is difficult to draw conclusions regarding curriculum emphasis from the figures reported in this table, it is clear that adult and postsecondary education is given considerable attention in AVTSs. For example, when Somerset's full-time postsecondary enrollment of 392 is combined with a part-time evening enrollment of nearly 1700 its secondary enrollment of 866, some of whom are half-time does not appear to outweigh postsecondary and adult enrollments. And Mercer's adult and postsecondary enrollment totalling 2668 seems roughly comparable in magnitude to its 828 half-time enrollments in high school programs.

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[1] Middlesex AVTS Annual Report 1976-1977, p. 13.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid., p. 79.

[4] Ibid., pp. 65-68.

[5] Middlesex County Employment and Training Services Inventory (New Brunswick: Middlesex County Comprehensive Employment and Training Administration Planning Department, 1977).

Table 6

1977-78 Enrollments in Four AVTSs

	School			
Program	Somerset	Middlesex	Burlington	Mercer
Secondary	866 (30%)	4546 (45%)	1056 (39%)	828 (24%)
Postsecondary	392 (13%)	490 (5%)	55 (2%)	635 (18%)
Adult	1667 (57%)	5031 (50%)	(59%)	2033 (58%)
Preparatory	813	543	-	54
Supplementary	703	3754	1581	1643
Apprentice	151	734	41	336
Totals	2925 (100%)	10,067 (100%)	2733 (100%)	3496 (100%)

SOURCE: N.J. Dept. of Education, Division of Vocational Education, from 1977-78 program reports submitted by AVTSs, May 1978.

The AVTSs, then, provide extensive programs for adult and postsecondary students on both a full-time and part-time, and on a short-term and extended basis. While postsecondary programs are primarily preparatory in nature, most adult programs provide continuing education for employed people. Most training provided by the AVTSs involves primarily manipulative skills supplemented by more academic skills like math and blueprint reading. However, some courses of study are comparable to college technology programs and sometimes college credit is awarded for AVTS courses through local community colleges. In general, adult and postsecondary programs are a fairly large component of AVTS offerings, in some schools comprising about half of the curriculum. AVTSs are the largest providers of training for skilled blue-collar jobs and practical nursing, and they provide much of the available training in the areas of clerical, cosmetology, and technology.

AVTS's Relationship to Environment

Relationship to the General Environment

The characteristics of a county and its population have strong influence on the status of vocational and technical education in the county. The comparison between Somerset and Middlesex County illustrates this well.

Somerset County is a rapidly growing suburban-rural area which ranks 13th in population among the 21 counties with a little more than 200,000 residents. There are no large or small cities and the population density of the county is 677 persons per square mile. The income level of the county's residents is well above average. It ranks third in mean family income among New Jersey's counties, and is the thirteenth wealthiest county in the nation with a mean family income of $15,156 and a median family income of $13,462 (1970 census). There are relatively few poor people in the county, with one-eighth of its families having incomes of less than $7000. Mean family incomes for individual municipalities range from $10,969 to $27,475. The county has few blacks or other minorities (3.6% and .5% respectively) and over two-thirds of these live in two municipalities (Franklin and Somerville). The unemployment rate has consistently been one of the lowest in the state. It is a predominantly residential county, with about 10 percent of its land used for industrial development, and a predominance of white collar job opportunities.[1]

Middlesex County, on the other hand, is one of the most densely populated counties in the state. With a population of over 600,000 residents, it ranks fourth in population size in the state. The average population of its municipalities is over 23,000 with its largest municipality, Woodbridge Township, having a population of about 100,000 and 10 of its 25 municipalities with populations of over 20,000. Its population density is 1883 persons per square mile, nearly three times that of Somerset County. The income level of Middlesex County residents is lower than that of Somerset County, with a mean family income of $12,974 and a median family income of $11,981 (1970). There are more poor people in Middlesex County, with nearly one-sixth of its families with incomes under $7000. Mean family incomes for individual municipalities range from $10,417 to $15,510, reflecting far fewer wealthy people and more middle-income people than Somerset County. Twelve percent of the county's population is black, with five municipalities having over 1000 black residents; the highest concentration of blacks is in New Brunswick which is nearly 50 percent black. There is a high concentration of Hispanics in Perth Amboy, with many in New Brunswick as well. The unemployment rate in Middlesex County has been quite high during the recent recession, resulting from heavy layoffs by manufacturers. The county experienced rapid industrial growth during the 1960s, but is now undergoing a shift in its job base, from manufacturing to non-manufacturing, with the number of government employees growing rapidly. The number of jobs for blue collar workers, which had been quite high, is now declining.[1]

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[1] Somerset County Plan for Career Development 1977-1978.

Interviewees in Somerset County frequently referred to their county characteristics and compared them with Middlesex County's. One AVTS administrator pointed out that Somerset gets a low level of funding in all areas—state school aid, vocational education money, CETA money—because most formulas use wealth and unemployment as factors. As a result, the county must pay a large portion of its own educational costs and higher tuition must be charged to adult students. Further, Middlesex County being more industrial and blue-collar, there is a greater need for training in vocational and technical areas (although this need seems to be declining). At any rate, the public in Middlesex County is more receptive to this type of training than are the wealthier, upwardly-mobile Somerset residents who are more inclined to seek college educations and training for professional positions. Middlesex County's AVTS was the first to be established in the country (1914) while Somerset first opened its AVTS in 1960, nearly a half a century later. Thus, the Middlesex AVTS has become an establishment, while Somerset AVTS is still striving to establish its reputation. Middlesex County has just built its fifth AVTS building, while Somerset AVTS has just one high school building with its adjoining Technical Institute building.

The budget for Somerset AVTS was approved at $2.4 million for 1978, reflecting a slight increase. The approved vocational school budget for Middlesex County for this year was $6.3 million, nearly a million dollar increase over the previous year's. In both counties, the AVTS budget was larger than the community college budget, in Somerset by 54 percent and in Middlesex by 58 percent. In both counties the community college budgets for 1978 were cut—in Middlesex by about $30,000 and in Somerset by over $300,000. Colleges, however, get about one-third of their revenues from tuition, while there is no charge to AVTS high school students and tuition charges for adult courses are kept to a minimum. Somerset charges tuition of $37.50 for a 39-hour one-semester course, while Middlesex charges only a $10 registration fee for a full-year. Somerset County Technical Institute charges tuition comparable to the county college for postsecondary students—about $200 per semester—while postsecondary students attending Middlesex are charged only a small registration fee.

Because of the type of student it wanted to attract, when Somerset County College was first instituted it disassociated itself from the AVTS by objecting to have its facility built adjacent to the AVTS. It catered to transfer-oriented students and avoided career-oriented offerings. A former official at the college commented that it viewed itself as the "Princeton of Somerset County." As time went on, however, the interest in career preparation at the college level grew, and Somerset County College sought to move into the vocational area. Since local officials objected to funding both institutions for similar programs—especially when expensive equipment was involved—the college sought out means of absorbing SCTI's offerings into its own curriculum. The AVTS, according to several interviewees, feared that its Institute would be taken over by the college, and resisted the cooperation venture. However, the AVTS was reportedly pressured into making an agreement with the college whereby students could get college credit for courses taken at SCTI. Under this political pressure, an agreement that SCTI considers "loose" was signed and now efforts are being made to "tighten it up." Among the provisions SCTI object to are that students are awarded degrees by the college with no mention of SCTI on the diploma, and an arrangement whereby revenues for the joint program are shared equally by the two institutions when SCTI must supply and maintain the expensive equipment.

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[1] Middlesex County Plan for Career Development 1977-1978.

Thus, SCTI is in the position of an "underdog" in an environment where professionals, manager and white-collar workers are in the majority and have political control, and where vocational programs outside the college curriculum are not widely supported or aspired to by county residents. It realizes that much of its funding provides support for what are really college programs, and at least some officials fear the possibility that it could be absorbed by the college. In an environment like Middlesex County it would probably feel secure, as MCVTS does, in its role in providing blue-collar training. In the not too distant future, however, Middlesex County will also be serving a predominantly white-collar population, as its economic base changes from manufacturing to non-manufacturing. Already, apprentice enrollments are down in Middlesex County and across the state due to industrial layoffs and closings and decreased building construction. The Middlesex AVTS, by expanding its programs in the technology areas, as it has done (see Table 1), might be successful in retaining its role as the primary training agency for industry in Middlesex County.

Relationship to Community College Degree Programs

Across New Jersey there has been some tension between community colleges and area vocational-technical schools. It came to a head first in Somerset County because of the environmental factors already discussed, but the competition for adult and postsecondary students is growing in other counties, and AVTSs are increasingly fearful of how it might affect them. A number of interviewees indicated that the two institutions in some counties "aren't speaking to each other," that the two served "different clienteles" (the colleges teach similar courses but at a "higher, more theoretical" level, and for those who could be promoted to the management level while AVTSs train blue-collar workers), or evaded discussing the issue with the researchers. Others expressed their feelings about the situation—AVTS people usually voicing resistence to cooperation because "we supported them when they were getting started and now they want to take us over;" community college people usually saying that AVTS people "don't want to cooperate." While these sentiments were not universally voiced, and some interviewees reported good relationships between the two institutions, there did appear to be a pattern in this direction.

The AVTSs were in operation before the founding of the community colleges, which has occurred only within the last decade, and during their first few years of operation the community colleges focused on liberal arts education for transfer students, allowing the vocational-technical schools to provide occupational training in trade areas and even to expand into technical areas. When public interest began to shift from liberal arts to occupational training, community colleges began to realize that they had a role in this type of education. Vocational-technical schools became concerned that the community colleges were reaching into their domain when they began to offer such programs as engineering, secretarial, and computer science. In some instances there was duplication of existing programs, although the community colleges required that training be supplemented with required liberal arts courses and offered Associate's Degrees in these areas. Subsequently, students enrolled in Technical Institutes, such as Somerset's, began to wonder why they couldn't get college credit and degrees for their course work. Since, in New Jersey, only community colleges can award Associate's Degrees, this was not legally possible.

In Somerset County, the idea of jointly offered programs occurred to both community college and AVTS administrators. The AVTS did not want to lose its postsecondary students to the county college over the college credit and degree issue; and county college saw a need for getting into occupational training because of the decrease in liberal arts degree interest, but did not have the money to invest in equipment. The Freeholders and the public did not want to invest money in duplicated programs and were favorable to the idea. There was some resistence, though, on the part of AVTS people for fear they might lose their identity and be subsumed by the college. As already explained, political pressure was used to bring about an agreement in 1974, and the college became the dominant institution in the partnership.

The Somerset agreement heightened the concern at the State Division of Vocational Education (DVE) that the Department of Higher Education (DHE), which is an agency separate from the State Department of Education (SDE) in New Jersey, would eventually "take over" the adult and postsecondary components of the county vocational schools. And recent public statements by the New Jersey Chancellor of Higher Education stating that occupational training should be delayed until the postsecondary level, that most vocational education funds should go to community colleges rather than to secondary schools, and that DHE should have control over postsecondary allocations, have reinforced this fear.[1] DVE has made an all-out effort to see that future joint agreements between community colleges and AVTSs give the AVTSs equal roles in the partnerships. Since the Somerset agreement, with the exception of Union County (where Union College and Union

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[1] "Accord forestalls fight over funding for vo-ed," Sunday Star Ledger (New Jersey), June 18, 1978; "Conflict seen in vo-ed plans" by T. Edward Hollander, Sunday Star Ledger, Jan. 8, 1978.

Technical Institute have a summarized joint agreement under a legislative statute) Atlantic County was the only county to have reached an agreement and instituted a program as of spring 1978. However, five other counties—among them Middlesex and Mercer—have signed agreements and are planning programs, and Middlesex plans to institute a joint AAS degree in Air Conditioning, Refrigeration and Heating in fall 1978. Ten other counties are in the process of negotiating a joint agreement or plan to begin negotiations soon. Burlington is one county where there has been a great deal of resistence to collaboration, but a new college president has been hired and with encouragement from DVE, it appears that negotiations between Burlington County College and Burlington County VTS will begin by fall 1978.

The trend toward AVTS evening schools offering programs rather than isolated courses fits into the concept of joint agreements nicely. Most AVTSs do not presently run postsecondary programs during the day since their facilities are filled to capacity with high school students. During the twilight hours a few programs run in these facilities, and after 6 or 7 p.m. they are again filled to capactiy with apprentice programs and other programs for adults. There is apparently not much room for adding new programs, but existing or revised AVTS evening programs could be combined with community college offerings to fulfill the requirements for a degree.

The objective of the joint agreement concept is to provide the community with needed career-oriented educational programs while maximizing the efficient utilization of existing facilities through cooperative planning and implementation of postsecondary vocational curriculums by community colleges and vo-tech schools. The provisions of the formal agreement being promulgated by DVE,[1] capitalize on the fact that by statute and regulation, AVTSs are authorized to grant diplomas and certificates of completion, while community colleges are the only institutions that can legally grant Associate's Degrees, although they can give diplomas and certificates as well. Under the joint agreement the college would grant only the degrees and AVTSs would award certificates of completion and diplomas in curriculum areas where there is a joint agreement. Both institutions, however, would be involved in determining the required courses, and the names of both institutions would appear on each awarded diploma, certificate, or degree, and representatives of both institutions would sign them.

There has been resistance among vocational educators to the idea of granting degrees for vocational training. They have traditionally viewed their students as not wanting degrees. Statements such as "You don't need a degree to hammer nails" and "The students who come to us don't want degrees" made during interviews reflect this. However, there seems to be public interest in the idea, and vocational educators are increasingly aware that AVTSs must stake their claim to a role in postsecondary education.

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[1] "Agreement Between the Community College and the County Vocational-Technical School for Joint Educational Programs, Recommended by the New Jersey Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education."

Relationship to Other Public Adult Schools and Community College Community Services Divisions

There has been some competition between AVTS evening programs and other local evening programs for adults. The AVTSs, most of which offer at least some courses other than vocational and technical, seem to be gradually backing out of non-training courses because of the growth of adult schools associated with comprehensive high schools. They are apparently trying to strengthen their offerings in the vocational and technical areas and to prevent other adult schools from increasing their enrollments in this area. This is also true of community service or continuing education community colleges, which have been attempting to conduct noncredit courses similar to the adult schools' during the evening hours with a great deal of success.

The County Adult Education Advisory Councils, composed of representatives of all institutions in the county that provide adult programming, are intended to coordinate efforts of such organizations in each county. However, one AVTS administrator said that the one in his county has not been very effective. There is a clique within it made up of directors of the largest adult school programs and other members' concerns are pretty much overlooked. There is no coordination, just plays for power. He has dealt with this by deciding to restrict his offerings to the vocational and technical areas, and by offering programs rather than just isolated courses. He is disturbed, however, that adult schools advertise their courses as vocational when they are really not. They do not have the equipment, the experienced instructors, or even the course length to be truly vocational, he pointed out. Another AVTS administrator said that he attends the County Advisory Council meetings more as a watchdog than anything else. He claimed they do not discuss vocational offerings that much, but he uses the meetings to challenge adult schools and the county college when they advertise a course such as auto mechanics as vocational. He reminds them that they don't even have the equipment—"the college doesn't even have a lift"—and have no business offering such courses. "If they think they can do a better job than I can, then they should go ahead, and I'll discontinue my courses in that area." He feels that he has been fairly successful in keeping the other institutions out of his domain in this way. He went on to say that adult school directors never inform him of the vocational courses they plan to offer, but that he goes out of his way to let them know if he decides to offer a course similar to theirs. For example, he said he called the neighboring adult school to inform the director that he was going to offer business courses, but that they would be geared to industrial secretaries and would not be the same as theirs. The coordinator of a large AVTS LPN program objected to a local adult school running a much smaller one funded by WIN and CETA. She felt that since there is not as much need for trained LPNs as there was at one time, that the adult school should let the AVTS do the training.

Thus, it appears that there is some (but not much) antagonism and competition between AVTSs and other public schools and colleges that offer non-credit vocational courses. The AVTSs are apparently claiming their turf and defending it against intruders. They see the non-credit vocational area as their own—at least in the trade areas and practical nursing. Some are strengthening their vocational offerings and emphasizing the fact that they are more intensive than those offered by their competitors. At least some AVTS administrators do not consider the County Adult Education Advisory Councils effective vehicles for coordination of non-credit offerings in vocational education.

Relationship to Local Employers

AVTS postsecondary/adult programs have links with business, industry, labor, and other employers through apprentice programs, advisory councils, faculty, students, and in-plant training programs.

One of the major components of the adult evening programs of AVTSs is Apprentice Training. In this program, skill training is provided by the apprentice's employer and related instruction is provided by the school—at least 144 hours per year for two to five years, depending upon the particular trade. Thus, of necessity, there must be some degree of linkage between the employer and the school. In order to carry out this responsibility, each County AVTS has an Apprentice Coordinator. These coordinators are hired by the County Board of Vocational Education, and are paid from the AVTS budget, but are expected to carry out certain responsibilities delineated by the State Division of Vocational Education. According to the Apprentice Coordinators Handbook,[1] these responsibilities include:

1. To promote apprenticeships by encouraging employers and labor organizations to hire and train apprentices.

2. To inspect facilities of employers, labor organizations, and schools who provide apprentice training, and recommend them to the State Department of Education and the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training (DOL) for approval.

3. To organize advisory committees for each apprenticeable trade in the county, which are generally subcommittees of Joint Apprenticeship Committees (JACs). In the building trades JACs are operating committees which sponsor, operate, and supervise the apprenticeship program and each apprentice's training experiences in a particular trade. They usually comprise an equal number of representatives of management and labor with an educational representative as advisor or consultant. In the industrial trades, a JAC has more of an advisory than supervisory capacity. Larger companies usually have Plant Apprenticeship Committees which are responsible for apprentice training

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[1] *Apprentice Program Coordinator Manual*, pp. 5-9.

for all trades in a particular plant, and hire a full-time or part-time supervisor of the apprenticeship program. The local JACs work closely with the County AVTS and its apprentice coordinator in determining the content of the related instruction program and assuring that it is up-to-date and complements on-the-job skills training. This may be done through the advisory subcommittee.

4. To develop and periodically revise related instruction programs for all apprenticeable trades in the county and to supervise the instructional programs at the AVTS. Also, to approve related instruction that takes place elsewhere. According to interviewees, some unions provide their own and schools other than the AVTS could also provide it, but this apparently seldom happens.

5. To orient, counsel, and provide needed guidance for apprentices and prospective apprentices.

6. To confer with employers, labor organizations, and advisory committees to determine the effectiveness of the training and related instruction provided by employers and the school.

In carrying out these responsibilities, the apprentice coordinator must work cooperatively with employers and unions who sponsor apprentices. However, the degree of involvement varies from AVTS to AVTS. At Middlesex and Mercer, apprentice coordinators have a minimum of other assigned responsibilities in their schools. Virtually all of their time is spent in supervising the apprenticeship program, advising employers, promoting apprenticeships, and so on. In Somerset, the apprentice coordinator, who is also responsible for Hunterdon County since there is no AVTS in that county, spends most of his time in activities related to apprenticeship, but does have other assigned responsibilities in supervising the adult evening program. In Burlington, the director of the adult program is also the apprentice coordinator. He says he does not find it necessary to keep in contact with employers. On the other hand, one of the other apprentice coordinators reported that he visits with employers who are starting apprentice programs and helps them plan the in-plant training of apprentices so that they are sure to get exposure to all aspects of their trade. Also, he drives around the county looking for new companies and when he sees a new one he goes in and talks with the employer about apprenticeships, encouraging him to begin a program. The amount of time an apprentice coordinator can give to the job depends upon the policies of his AVTS supervisor/superintendent/board and how much time he is required by them to devote to other assigned responsibilities. While the state can ask them to do certain things, the apprentice coordinators are not employees of the state but of the County Board of Vocational Education, and they receive their assignments from the Board.

The Joint Apprenticeship Committees, which have some control over the content and learning activities of related instruction for apprentices, as well as advisory committees, which are often spin-offs from JACs and serve more of an advisory role, are instrumental in keeping the content of evening school courses up-to-date and relevant to practices of business and industry. One director, however, complained that the JACs have too much control—to the extent that he must submit field trip requests from instructors to the appropriate JAC for approval.

The faculty of evening AVTS programs are also a link to the world of work, since many of them are currently working in the field in which they are teaching. Furthermore, nearly all other evening school instructors have worked in their field for a number of years and are currently teaching in vocational or technical programs during the day. One evening school director estimated that his instructors are made up of about half of each type. They are, therefore, knowledgeable regarding practices of employers.

Some AVTSs also conduct in-plant training and other continuing education training at the request of local employers. For example, Middlesex uses the facilities of a pharmaceutical company to train lab technicians, since the equipment is too expensive for the AVTS to purchase. Employees of the company, as well as employees of other companies, are enrolled in this training. Middlesex also conducts training of persons employed as food handlers—"anyone from hot dog stand operators to chefs and waiters in restaurants"—for certain municipalities which have ordinances requiring all food handlers to have six hours training per year for health reasons. Similar courses of a few hours duration are operated for nurse's aides. According to the program director, it is expected that there will be a state law soon requiring several hours training for nurse's aide employees of hospitals and nursing homes. Programs such as these are often held at the employer's facility and during the regular work day.

Somerset offers an oil burners class at the request of the Tri-County Fuel Dealers Association. Since SCTI does not have the needed equipment, the Association bought and equipped a trailer, kept outside the school, where the oil burner classes are held. Another arrangement, with the plumbers union, allows the union to use the SCTI facilities for evening training, but they must pay rent since they want to keep control over their own curriculum and instruction with no input from the school and to enroll only their union members in the classes. This union once attempted to set up its own schools, and according to one apprentice coordinator they were very good, but they found them too expensive to maintain and have turned to the AVTSs for facilities.

Local employers also apparently provide some financial support for AVTSs. For example, sometimes they donate equipment. The Mercer AVTS evening director cited several instances of this. The expectation is, however, that the school will set up courses and use the equipment to train their workers. The Burlington superintendent commented that local industry contributed about half the cost of their new facility, supplying all the shops with equipment.

For the LPN training programs, students must spend about half of their class time on hospital floors. They are required by the State Board of Nursing to spend time in several nursing specialties, including medical-surgical, obstetrics, psychiatrics, and pediatrics. Sometimes this is done within one hospital, but some AVTSs rotate their students to different hospitals for the various specialties. Middlesex, for example, has students in 20 different hospitals. They are always supervised by an AVTS instructor, who assigns them to patients after consulting with the appropriate head nurses at the hospitals prior to making the assignments. Middlesex makes a formal written agreement with each hospital it uses for training, but some AVTSs have informal agreements with their hospitals. Some hospitals also provide classroom space for the AVTS programs.

In interviewing AVTS evening directors it was generally difficult to get to itemize their linkages with employers. They seemed to take this function for granted. One director, after the researcher had brainstormed with him to get him to identify linkages, came up with a long list, and then remarked that he had not realized how involved he was with local employers. Thus, responsiveness to local employers' needs, at least to a degree, seems to be an inherent function of AVTSs. The degree of responsiveness varies, however. One director never did identify any linkages with employers, although he was interviewed on two different occasions by two different project staff members.

Based on a survey of one hundred top businesses and industries in New Jersey in 1976, the New Jersey Advisory Council on Vocational Education concluded that, with the exception of apprentice training, there is little effort to provide coordination between employer and union needs and the public education sector.[1] The built-in communication system of the apprentice programs, however, affects much of the AVTS evening operation since much of the non-apprentice training that takes place there is in the same trades as apprentice training and thus involves many of the same employers. Overall, it appears that AVTS adult and postsecondary programs have a good record in this area.

Relationship to CETA

Except for the Mercer County AVTS, which runs its Adult Vocational-Technical Center with 85 percent funding from CETA, most AVTSs in New Jersey do not have extensive CETA programs, and there seems to be a lack of interest on the part of vocational educators to become involved with CETA, at least on CETA's terms. In Burlington, according to the superintendent, the AVTS is already filled to capacity with high school students during the day, and since CETA only wants daytime programs there can be no CETA classes in AVTS facilities. According to CETA personnel there, the possibility of placing clients in classes sponsored by the

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[1] Annual Report of the New Jersey Advisory Council on Vocational Education: An Evaluation of Vocational Education Programs, Services, and Activities in New Jersey (December 1976), pp. 17-19.

AVTS "is no longer discussed."

The adult education director at Middlesex AVTS told researchers that they were not currently involved with CETA, but they had been before and the director was sure they would be again. Researchers learned several months later from other interviews that two classes were set up in spring 1978 to train CETA clients for Air Conditioning and Refrigeration and Clerk-Typist. In addition, the nursing coordinator at MCVTS explained that several slots in their LPN program are reserved for CETA, participants and they attend classes along with other MCVTS students in this program.

On the secondary level, according to a newspaper article, the superintendent at Somerset resisted the idea of submitting a proposal to CETA for a skills assessment and training program for dropouts and potential dropouts. He said he was "uncertain whether the Vo-Tech would be the proper agency to administer these funds," that "perhaps some other group could do it more advantageously," and that "a great deal will depend on whether space will be available without cost or if rental will be required." His Board ordered him to "get it (the proposal) ready as soon as possible for our review."[1]

The Somerset AVTS also turned down CETA's request to set up special classes for its clients. The AVTS had run such classes in the past, but was dissatisfied. AVTS officials said that there were many administrative problems, and that they felt it was not educationally and psychologically sound to segregate CETA participants. The AVTS insisted on taking CETA clients only as individual referrals to their existing programs at the Technical Institute. CETA finally agreed, and has reported that this arrangement has been more effective than previous separate CETA classes. It is less expensive, reported CETA, and students have better attendance records and are making better progress.[2]

The Mercer CETA program was reportedly improved by vocational educators' determination to get control over the operation and to operate it in a manner they felt was more effective than it had been. The complaints at the Mercer AVTC were similar to those of other public schools that had been involved with CETA or similar government training programs. CETA had complete control over placements and terminations, there was open enrollment and new students from CETA could be referred to start there on any day, they were paid for attending and often did so only to get paid, they were frequently late or absent, they did not take the training seriously, and there were disciplinary problems. As a result, teacher morale was low and their absentee rate high. In addition, the Mercer AVTC had to deal with two CETA prime sponsors (Mercer County and City of Trenton) which did not communicate with each other and had differing policies, placement, counseling, and length of training. After nearly closing because of its many problems, the Center appointed a new principal, who made some important changes. The AVTC was able to obtain some authority over who was admitted to or terminated from the Center, and was able to persuade the two prime sponsors to agree on a uniform course length and only two intake days per month. Through weekly meetings with CETA representatives regarding assessment and assignment of students, the AVTC was able to exert its influence on prime sponsor policy. The new Center principal was able to impose rigid attendance requirements on enrollees, and to institute a policy whereby students who did not attend regularly were automatically dropped from the program after warnings and counseling. While there are still problems—particularly what was reported as an inordinate amount of paper work and CETA's lack of appreciation of the Center's problems, communication with CETA representatives has improved and the operation is running more smoothly.[1]

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[1] "Vo-tech eyes pilot project to determine youths' skills" The Courier News (New Jersey), November 26, 1977.

[2] Somerset County Employment and Training Agency, CETA Title I Annual Plan FY'78 For Training, Supportive Services and Opportunities for Somerset County Residents, (August 15, 1977), p. 49.

In addition to the operational problems, some of which vocational educators have been able to influence CETA to remedy, there appears to be a lack of understanding of CETA on the part of vocational educators. CETA is a complex bureaucracy, still in its infancy and suffering growing pains. While it is locally organized and administered, it must adhere to an array of constantly changing federal regulations. Its goal is to place clients in permanent, unsubsidized jobs as quickly as possible, and local prime sponsors are evaluated primarily on the basis of "positive terminations." Its clientele, especially for its training programs is made up largely of the unemployed, the disadvantaged, the unskilled, those who have been unable to find employment through usual means. CETA must be flexible in adjusting to changing economic and social conditions and to a constant turnover in clients.

Vocational education, on the other hand, is built on a tradition of at least several decades. While it experienced certain periods of abundant funding, it invested its funds in buildings and equipment which have enabled it to serve increasing numbers of students over the years. Since their traditional students are youths preparing for employment in trades for which they are being thoroughly prepared and working adults trying to advance themselves in their occupations, vocational educators tend to resent the concept of paying stipends to CETA participants. Several interviewees commented on CETA's "waste of money" on stipends and ineffective programs, comparing it with vocational-education's investment in plants which are now used to train large numbers of high school and adult students. Because of the facilities and time required for vocational training, AVTS scheduling is relatively inflexible. Students must spend extended periods of time using equipment under supervision. Productivity competence are emphasized in a "no-nonsense curriculum" which promotes a certain "attitude towards one's occupation and a willingness to produce."[1] One vocational educator boldly stated what a number of other interviewees implied: he was "against handouts in general" and "disgusted with their 'prime time' requirement"; he felt that "those who work hard all day and pay to go to a night class deserve the break, not those who do nothing all day", and that "they should have to go to class at night like other hard-working people."

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[1] Adult Vocational Technical Center Summary Annual Report 1976-1977 to the Superintendent of Mercer County Area Vocational-Technical Schools, p.23.

Because the AVTSs have a steady clientele and sufficient funding, they do not need the additional students and monies that CETA could provide. They cooperate with CETA for several reasons—because they feel an obligation to serve the disadvantaged, particularly in urban areas; they are encouraged to do so by the State Department of Education; CETA needs them for certain types of training and has nowhere else to send clients for training that requires certain kinds of equipment and expertise; and CETA legislation requires that existing education facilities be used for training and sets aside 5 percent of its training funds to pay for training programs in public and private schools.[2] Thus, AVTSs do not seem to be enthusiastic participants in CETA training, but do so out of a sense of obligation and, to the extent possible, on their own terms.

Summary

Area Vocational-Technical Schools in New Jersey have a tradition that dates back to the late 19th century in a state that is highly industrialized and heavily populated. Federal funding enabled the AVTS system to mushroom by adding over 40 facilities between 1966 and 1972, most of which operate under the auspices of county governments.

County AVTSs provide training primarily for high school students, but programming for adult and postsecondary students is on extensive component of AVTSs. Most part-time programs for adults are offered in the evening and are continuing or supplementary in nature rather than preparatory. A large component of AVTS evening programming is apprentice training, which extends over a several year period, and other training programs in the trades are also comprised of multi-year series of courses. AVTSs are the primary providers of skilled trade and apprenticeship training in New Jersey.

Although the traditionally male blue-collar occupations are the major focus of AVTSs, training ranges from semi-skilled and skilled trades to technical and semi-professional occupations. In addition, training in the traditionally female areas of practical nursing, secretarial, home economics, and cosmetology is offered. In fact, AVTSs are the primary trainers of LPNs in New Jersey.

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[1] Byrl R. Shoemaker, "A Philosophy for Vocational Education" Unpublished paper (Ohio: Director of Vocational Education), p. 2.

[2] Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, P.L. 93-203 as amended, Sections 103(c), 112.

Most daytime programs for high school graduates and other adults are usually referred to as postsecondary, and include programs such as training of CETA clients in half-year preparatory courses, a Technical Institute which offers 2-year training programs in the technologies for which college credit and an Associate's Degree may be earned under a joint agreement with the local county college, enrollment of adults in high school courses where space is available, as well as LPN training, which is offered by nearly all AVTSs in New Jersey.

Avocational courses are also offered by some AVTS adult programs for the general public, particularly in areas of practical use to the homeowner, carowner, and homemaker, but these courses tend to be shorter one-term courses as compared with the extended programs in the vocational areas. Some AVTSs also offer courses in other curriculum areas, similar to those offered in comprehensive adult schools, but in general the focus is on vocational training.

AVTSs have no lack of students. Many have waiting lists for certain programs at both the secondary and the adult levels. They appear to have adequate funding from several sources—local, state, and federal. Partical support for adult programs is sometimes obtained by tuition charges, although some are supported almost entirely by public funding. When adequate funding is not available, higher tuition fees for adult courses must be charged.

In comparison with comprehensive adult schools, AVTS adult programs appear to be a more central component of the total school system. They seem to have higher status, to have greater local financial support, and to be less marginal in their relationship to their parent institution. AVTS offerings are limited primarily to the vocational, and their vocational programs provide more extensive training through more hours spent per semester, series of courses over a several year period, equipment similar to that used on the job, and instructors who are not only certified but who have extensive experience working in their fields.

Primarily through their apprenticeship programs, AVTSs cooperate with local unions and employers in providing training for adults. Since most faculty and administrators at AVTSs have worked or are currently working in the trade they are teaching, they are a natural link with industry and are familiar with current methods of operation in their fields. Most students, also, are working in an occupation related to their training, and they too provide a natural linkage with the world of work. Through these personal linkages, donations or use of equipment by industry are sometimes made in exchange for training programs for their empoyees. Some AVTSs seek out opportunities for setting up in-plant or on-site training for local employers in areas such as nurse's aide, food handler, and road maintenance.

Apart from their linkages with unions and employers, AVTSs do not exhibit much interest in cooperative linkages with other providers of adult vocational training. Their posture toward comprehensive adult schools and community colleges has been defensive—seeking to keep these institutions out of their domain by objecting when they attempt to offer vocational courses that AVTSs are better equipped to offer, by strengthening their vocational offerings and withdrawing from the nonvocational areas, and by resisting cooperative agreements that will make their programs vulnerable to take-over by a dominant institution. AVTSs have not been aggressive in moving into new areas that might be competitive with programs offered by other providers. They have sought to carve out and strictly define their own niche and to defend it against attack from other insittutions.

AVTSs have not been anxious to develop joint programs with community colleges, but have been forced to do so by circumstances. The desire of community colleges to extend their curricula into the vocational areas, the desire of students to obtain college degrees in these areas, and the unavailability of funds for duplicate facilities in both institutions have made it impossible for the AVTSs to resist this joint venture. Further, the State Division of Vocational Education (DVE) has had the foresight to recognize that unless strong cooperative agreements that make AVTSs equal partners with community colleges in offering such degree programs are aggressively sought, the AVTSs could lose an opportunity for growth in the adult and postsecondary areas, and may even by ruled by the Department of Higher Education in funding and curriculum decisions. Thus, the AVTSs have been pressed by DVE to establish joint agreements with community colleges that insure them an equal role in career-oriented degree programs.

Involvement with CETA has not been attractive to AVTSs either. Because of CETA's different clientele, many of whom were unable to conform to the structured curriculum of the public schools as high school students, and because of CETA's goals, philosophy, and modus operandi, all of which are foreign to vocational educators, AVTSs have not been eager to become involved. However, cooperation with CETA cannot be totally avoided because it is mandated by legislation and by federal and state regulations. AVTSs are obligated to provide training for the disadvantaged and are the only institutions that can provide certain kinds of training that require expensive equipment and specific expertise. Thus, although AVTSs do not seek out linkages with CETA, they dutifully cooperate when they can. Some AVTSs have even been successful in converting CETA to some of their methods of operation and in convincing CETA to grant them authority over certain aspects of placement and guidance.

The Area Vocational Schools in New Jersey, then, tend to be passive in their communications and linkages with other organizations. They have a commodity that no one else has and that is needed by others—by CETA, by community colleges, by employers and unions, and by workers seeking advancement in their careers or training for new careers.

CHAPTER 4

ADULT SCHOOLS*

Nature of the Institution

The evolution of adult schools in New Jersey can be traced back to the late 19th century. An 1895 state law provided for "the employment of lecturers on the natural sciences and kindred subjects in the public schools....in the evenings, for the benefit of workingmen and workingwomen."[1] Within a few years state aid was authorized for Public Evening Schools (1903), Americanization Education (1907) and Vocational Evening Schools (1913).

General adult education and Americanization education grew during the depression of the 1930's as the federal government underwrote costs of teachers' salaries and instructional supplies and materials in New Jersey and other states. In the first study of adult education in New Jersey conducted in the late 1930's by Leon Broudy, 32 W.P.A. supported adult schools were reported. These programs were characterized by extensive concern with instruction of foreign-born. Eighteen communities reported having accredited evening high schools. Broudy's survey also uncovered what he called the "New-Type Adult Schools." These 63 schools serving over 43,000 adults in 1939 were the early versions of today's adult schools. Local boards of education provided physical facilities and fees or dues covered expenses. "Fields of learning" were predominately arts and crafts (30%), vocational subjects (15%), and languages (13%).[2]

The second half of the twentieth century has seen a considerable growth in the number of adult schools in New Jersey and consequently the number of adults served. Americanization education and classes for foreign-born (supported in W.P.A. schools) merged with the "new-type" adult schools. By 1960, "community adult education programs" or "general" adult education programs could be estimated as serving over 100,000 adults (not including evening vocational classes).[3] Legislation in the 1960's, both state and federal, further stimulated the growth of adult schools in New Jersey. In 1964 the State legislature passed a bill which provided funding of 2/3 of the director's salary (up to $12,000) of local comprehensive adult education programs. This legislation, in addition to federal acts providing for Adult Basic Education (1964 Economic Opportunity Act), the extension of ABE programs (Adult Education Act of 1966), and various manpower and economic development acts had a significant impact on adult schools in New Jersey. As of 1977, community adult education programs could be found in 200 local school districts and enrollments in community adult education programs totalled 473,991.[1]

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[1] "Financing Adult Education in New Jersey," Staff Memorandum Prepared for the Consideration of the State Tax Policy Committee under J.R. No. 5, Laws of 1957. Princeton, 1961, p. 11.

[2] Leon Broudy, Adult Education in New Jersey. American Association for Adult Education, New York, 1940, p. 14.

[3] "Financing Adult Education in New Jersey," op.cit. p. 18.

*By Sharan Merriam

Adult schools in New Jersey offer comprehensive programs to persons who are beyond the compulsory school age and who are not regularly enrolled in a public or private secondary school. In order to qualify for state funding, adult schools must offer classes or activities representing a minimum of six curriculum areas from a possible nineteen curriculum areas. In reality, nearly all New Jersey public adult schools offer programs in at least a dozen areas. Following is a list of curricular areas:

1. Naturalization Education - prepares non-citizens to gain their citizenship. Sample courses/activities include: Evening Schools for the Foreign Born, the Americanization Conference, Citizenship, Government.

2. Adult Basic Education - provides adults with basic reading, writing, and computational skills. Sample courses/activities include: English as a Second Language, English, Mathematics, Reading, etc.

3. High School Education - prepares the non-high school graduate to gain a high school diploma. Sample courses/activities/services include: all adult high school courses where high school credit is provided, GED-E and S testing and its preparatory classes, and subject area examinations.

4. Vocational Education - provides the worker, employed or unemployed, with salable skills for employment or employment stability. Sample courses include such activities related to Agriculture/Agri Business, Distributive Education, Health Occupation, Occupational Home Economics, Business and Office Education, Technical Education, Vocational Industrial Education, Apprenticeship Training.

5. Civic and Public Affairs Education - prepares citizens to participate in the decisionmaking processes of society. Sample courses/activities include: Current Events, Local History; Local, State, National, and International Affairs; An Evening with the Mayor; Know Your City; and programs aimed toward local problem solving.

6. Literatures and Languages Education - enriches the adult with knowledge and skills related to the adult's culture and that of others. Sample courses/activities include all foreign language classes, Creative Writing, Great Books, Public Speaking, Speed Reading, International Festivals, etc.

7. Leadership Training and Group Relations Education - provides the adult with leadership skills and knowledge to function effectively as an individual and within groups. Sample courses/activities include: Memory Training, Psychiatry, Psychology, Public Relations, Current

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[1] "Community Adult Education Program Enrollment: Local School District and County Institution Data by Fifteen Curriculum Areas, Year Ending June 30, 1977," Report prepared by the Bureau of Adult, Continuing, Community Education, Trenton.

Issues in Industrial Relations, Parlimentary Procedures, Labor Relations, Transactional Analysis, Collective Bargaining, How to Run a Meeting, Inservice for School Board Members.

8. Health, Safety and Physical Education - provides the adult with knowledge, skills, and activities to maintain a healthy body. Sample courses/activities include: Water Safety, Safe Handling of Firearms, Physical Fitness, Judo, etc.

9. Music and Dramatic Education - provides adults with knowledge, skills activities to express themselves through the performing arts. Sample courses/activities include: Community Concerts, Senior Citizen Band, Songfests, Acting, Instrumental Music, Piano, Etc.

10. Driver and Pedestrian Education - prepares the adult to maintain a driver's license and to function effectively behind-the-wheel and as a pedestrian. Sample courses/activities include: Drivers Education for Adults, Behind-the-Wheel for adults, Auto Bingo, Rules of the Road, etc.

11. Consumer and Homemaking Education - provides the adult with knowledge and skills to function effectively as a consumer and/or as a household manager. Sample courses/activities include: Law for the Layman, Income Tax Guidance, Insurance and Investments, Home Nursing, Cooking, Home Gardening, Consumer Rights, Estate Building, Powder Puff Mechanics, Home Plumbing, etc.

12. Family Life Education - prepares the adult to function effectively as a family member. Sample courses/activities include: Understanding Your Handicapped/Gifted Child, Child Care and Family Relations, Parent Effectiveness Training, College Planning for Parents, For the Parents of the Unborn.

13. Mathematics and Science Education - provides the adult with theoretical knowledge and skill's about man's environment. Sample courses/activities include: Man and His Environment, Earth Day, Algebra, Sharping Your Math Skills, Biology, Forums on Ecological Concerns, etc.

14. Arts and Crafts Education - provides the adult with knowledge, skills, and activities to express themselves by making and/or doing things requiring creativity and/or skill. Sample courses/activities include: Ceramics, Oil Painting, Leather Craft, Furniture Repair, Antiques, Craft Fairs, etc.

15. Avocational Education - provides the adult with knowledge, skills, and activities for leisure-time living. Sample courses/activities include: Bridge, Dog Obedience, Chess, Travel Programs/Field Trips, Understanding Football for the Spectator, programs not aimed toward development of a craft or art, etc.[1]

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[1] Curricular Classification Guide, Bureau of Adult, Continuing and Community Education, May 1, 1978.

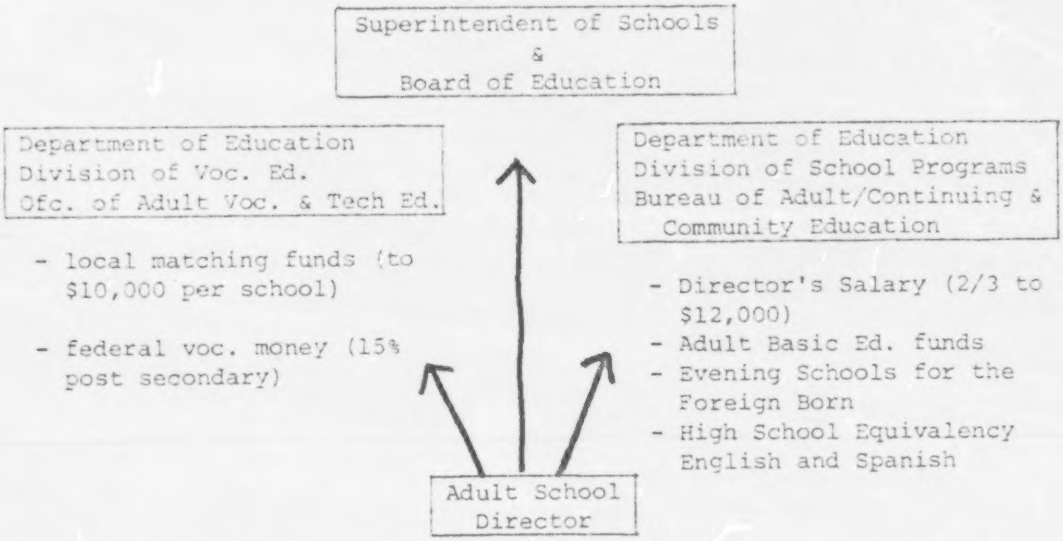
The range of curriculum areas offered in most adult schools reflects the range of interests and needs being met by the schools. Other clientele characteristics can be drawn from a descriptive profile of public school adult education programs compiled by the Center for Adult Development, Rutgers University. From the adult school population approximately

23.4% are from urban areas
10.5% are from rural areas
65.1% are from suburban areas

26.3% have less than twleve years of school
6.0% do not have English as their major language

9.5% are unemployed
22.8% have family income below $10,000
30.0% have family income above $20,000[1]

The administrative structure of public adult school necessitates the director's having to deal with several administrative units. An adult school director is hired by a local school district and in most cases reports to the superintendent or assistant superintendent of schools. In terms of funding, the adult school director, with local district approval, deals with the New Jersey Director of General Adult/Continuing and Community Education. For funding related to vocational-technical programs, adult school directors negotiate with the Office of Adult Vocational and Technical Education within the division of Vocational Education (a more detailed explanation of this funding will be covered in the second section of this chapter). The administrative/funding structure can be visualized as follows:


Superintendent of Schools & Board of Education
Department of Education Division of Voc. Ed. Ofc. of Adult Voc. & Tech Ed.
- local matching funds (to $10,000 per school)
- federal voc. money (15% post secondary)
Department of Education Division of School Programs Bureau of Adult/Continuing & Community Education
- Director's Salary (2/3 to $12,000)
- Adult Basic Ed. funds
- Evening Schools for the Foreign Born
- High School Equivalency English and Spanish
Adult School Director

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[1] "A Descriptive Profile of Public School Adult Education Programs in New Jersey, 1977," Report prepared by the Center for Adult Development, Rutgers University, for the Research Committee, Association for Adult Education of New Jersey, p.2.

Following is a brief description of the programs which are eligible for state and federal funding (excepting vocational-technical):

Adult Basic Education - 2.2 million dollars alloted FY 78. ABE programs are under the direct control and supervision of the State and are developed to alleviate the inability of adults to read and write English. Such programs aim to raise the educational level of such adults with a view to making them less likely to become dependent on others, to improve their ability to benefit from occupational training and otherwise to increase their opportunity for more productive and profitable employment and to make them better able to meet their adult responsibility. Each program includes a logical sequence of those essentials of reading, writing, and other basic educational skills and competencies deemed necessary for the individual enrolled to overcome such inabilities and deficiencies. Local boards of education are not allowed to charge fees or tuition or costs of materials.[1]

High School Equivalency - 1.3 million dollars for FY 1978. Instruction in high school equivalency aims to prepare persons 18 years of age and older in the skills necessary to qualify for a high school equivalency diploma. Such students must score at least 35 on all sections of the General Educational Development Tests (GED) for a total of 225. The Director of the Bureau of Adult/Continuing and Community Education is responsible for supervision of high school equivalency instructional programs. As with ABE programs, no fees are charged the students.

Evening Schools for Foreign Born - $889,000. Classes for foreign born residents helps prepare non-citizens to gain their citizenship. Classes include the English language, local and state government laws of New Jersey, the form of the government and laws of the United States, and problems in American democracy.

Adult High Schools - funding for adult high schools is tied into the school system's K-12 funding. Adult high schools or accredited evening high schools can present several options to the adult who desires to complete high school. Such options as credit by examination, home study, educational experiences related to the job, accelerated courses, etc., can be incorporated into an individual's program.

Funding for programs in New Jersey's adult schools can draw from the above mentioned sources, vocational-technical sources (to be discussed), and tuition or fees charged for individual classes. One of the strengths of New Jersey's adult schools, however, lies not so much with programmatic funding sources, but with Bill 219 passed by the State Legislature in 1964. Under this legislation, adult school directors may receive 2/3 of their salary up to $12,000 if their adult school meets the following criteria:

-it is operated under the authority of a board of education and administered through the office of the superintendent of schools;

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[1] New Jersey Administrative Code, Chapter 44, "Adult and Continuing Education," pp. 26-27.

-it is designed to serve persons beyond the compulsory school age and not regularly enrolled in a public or private secondary school;

-it is organized to accomplish legitimate educational purposes and maintains a level of attendance consistent with good instruction and sound economy;

-it is administered by a person holding a supervisor's or administrator's certificate;

-for school districts with a population of 50,000 or more a full-time administrator must be assigned and no district can assign a person to spend less than half of his/her working time in administration of adult education programs;

-it maintains a comprehensive program that includes classes or activities representing at least six curriculum areas.[1]

According to the descriptive profile of public school adult education programs in New Jersey, 68.2% of the directors receive state funds in support of their salaries. In terms of operating costs, approximately 60% of the adult school's budget is generated through student fees, 28% is from state and federal funds, and 12% is from local tax funds.[2]

In comparison to a school district's support of elementary and secondary schools, the local district's dollar contribution to adult schools is minimal. For the most part it is limited to contributions to the director's salary and perhaps secretarial support. Although it is clear that adult schools are largely self-supporting, analyzing only the dollar contribution of a school district might be misleading. Districts are often supportive in non-monetary ways such as providing facilities for classes, covering utilities, supplies, publicity and other expenses within the district's general educational budget.

The variety of programs offered in the typical public adult school in New Jersey would seem to necessitate a certain amount of autonomy on the part of the directors, at least in terms of hiring staff. The survey of adult schools verifies that this is the case. Directors feel they have a great amount of autonomy in hiring teachers, clerical personel and administrators. Demonstrated competence in a subject area and a pleasant personality were reported as major criteria in hiring teachers.[3] Certification requirements do not appear to be a major concern except for instructors in vocational-technical areas in accredited adult high schools, and English as a Second Language.

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[1] "Adult and Continuing Education," New Jersey Administrative Code, State of New Jersey, p. 28.

[2] "A Descriptive Profile of Public School Adult Education Programs in New Jersey, 1977," op.cit. p. 10.

[3] Ibid.

In summary, public adult schools in New Jersey have grown steadily both in numbers and in residents served since the turn of the century. The wide scope of programs offered by most schools offers opportunities for adults to learn to read and write, become citizens, obtain a high school diploma, enjoy leisure activities, and learn salable skills for employment or employment stabiliy. The State's commitment to adult schools as one deliverer of adult education is demonstrated through a supportive administrative network, specific programmatic funding, and, perhaps most important, through Public Law 219 which contributes towards the adult school director's salary.

Involvement in Adult Vocational Education

As of May 1, 1978, the State Board of Education approved fifteen curriculum areas of which public adult schools must offer a minimum of six to qualify for funding. One of the curricular areas is vocational-technical education. Adult vocational-technical education is that education, the controlling purpose of which is to provide the worker, employed or unemployed, with salable skills for employment or employment stability.[1] All curricula must be designed to prepare individuals for gainful employment as semi-skilled or skilled workers or technicians or subprofessionals in recognized occupations.

According to the Office of Adult Vocational and Technical Education, "to be considered vocational, course content must be of sufficient length and substance to clearly provide for the development of a salable skill—one (or more) that could be used independently or with other skills to gain employment. Course purpose must clearly define the salable skill(s) to which the training is directed."[2] Within this broad definition adult schools might offer courses or activities related to the following:

Agriculture/Agribusiness - this incorporates the scientific and occupational skills relating to the production, processing, distribution and marketing of agricultural products. Agribusiness includes the research and development, sales, service and repair of machinery and equipment related to agriculture. Courses include Horticulture, Soil Management, Landscaping, Greenhouse Management, Turfgrass Production, Agriculture Mechanics, Farm Equipment Operation, etc.

Distribution and Marketing - course offerings in this area center around instruction for those interested in entering a career in retail sales or marketing. Sample courses are Commercial Art, Advertising Layout, Publicity & Public Relations, Hotel-Motel Management, Small Business Administration, Retail Sales Promotion, Merchandising.

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[1] Memo on Adult Vocational-Technical Education; State of New Jersey, Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education.

[2] Ibid.

Health Occupations - developing skills related to a health career. Courses under this cluster are Dental Assistant, Practical Nursing, Home Nursing, Operating Room Technician, Medical Lab Technician, Natural Childbirth, Prospective Parents, Podiatrist Assistant, Continuing Education for Practical Nurses, Geriatric Nursing Care, Medical/Dental Receptionist.

Home Economics (Occupational) and Consumer Education - these courses would reflect employment opportunities in food services, child care, housing and home furnishing services, family and consumer services. Specific courses might be Food Trades, Commercial Baking, Catering, Dressmaking, Interior Decorating, Home Management, Foods & Nutrition.

Office Occupations - this cluster offers courses which are designed to prepare students for employment in a variety of business settings. Courses commonly offered are Typing, Business English, Business Lae, Bookkeeping & Accounting, Shorthand, Secretarial Practices & Procedures, Business Machines, Back to Business, Elementary Accounting, General Office Procedures, Data Processing, Keypunch, Legal/Medical Secretary, Word Processing, etc.

Technical Education - technical education is that part of the technological field which requires the application of scientific and engineering knowledge and methods combined with technical skills in support of engineering activities. Sample courses are Civil Technician, Climate Control, Continuing Engineering, Lab Technician, Metallurgy, Instrument Flight, Reinforced Concrete Construction, Technical Aide, Welding Technology, etc.

Trades and Industry - this instruction is designed to develop basic manipulative skills, safety judgment, technical knowledge and related occupational information for initial employment in industrial occupations and upgrading or retraining workers employed in industry. Sample courses are Auto Mechanics, Automotive Theory, Auto Maintenance, Auto Body Repair & Refinishing, Foreign Car Repairs, Truck Mechanic, Motorcycle Engine Repair, Small Gas Engine Repair, Furniture Making, Aluminum & Vinyl Siding Installation, Drafting, Electricity & Wiring, Television Service, Machine Drafting, Beauty Culture, Firefighting, Library Aides, etc.

Career Development - assisting students in identifying career options as well as assisting in the preparation of career development. Courses might include Civil Service Preparation, C.P.A. Exam Preparation, Career Workshop for Women, Technical Writing, Substitute Teaching, Montessori, Foreman Leadership Training.[1]

Funding for vocational education may be obtained through the Division of Vocational Education if the course meets the specific guidelines. The historical background of legislation for state aid for vocational education goes back to 1913. A bill passed in that year reaffirmed a 1903 act "to establish a thorough and efficient system of free public schools" and defined "Vocational Education" as meaning "any education the controlling purpose of which is to fit for profitable employment."[1] The 1913 Law provided for vocational evening classes in household arts, industrial, and agricultural schools, and for a matching aid up to $10,000 per school.

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[1] List of Existing and Potential Adult Vocational-Technical Courses, State of New Jersey, Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education.

It wasn't until 1967, however, that funding directed to part-time and evening vocational programs was officially recognized. The 1967 Title 18A Act included the wording "other than full-time day schools" as programs also eligible for matching funds. The original funding package limited individual block grants to $10,000 and the total statewide was $80,000 (1913).[2] For fiscal year 1978, two million dollars in matching funds was distributed amongst 67 adult schools and county vocational school evening programs.

In addition to matching State funds, 15% of federal vocational money to each state is alloted to post-secondary education. The 2½ million dollars for 1978 was distributed to the counties in New Jersey based upon a formula which takes into account the county's unemployment rate, per capita income, ratables, etc.

A subcommittee of the County Career Coordinating Council makes recommendations with regard to program areas according to the county's priorities in vocational education. Institutions within the county then submit to the council applications for program funding. The applications are screened at the county level for procedural matters and then are sent to the State Department of Education. There program specialists review the applications and decisions are made as to which institutions will offer which vocational programs with the 15% post-secondary funds. The process is a joint effort between the state, which makes the program decisions, and the county, which has set the priorities within which programs are needed. Within the last two years adult schools have begun competing for these funds along with the county colleges and county vocational schools. To date, only a few adult schools have gotten a share of the 15% post-secondary vocational funds. Many directors feel that the time and effort involved in the paperwork and accountability for such funds are not worth the end support. The State Director of Adult and Community Education did feel that these funds will be sought after by more directors in the future as competition for other funds increases and/or funding sources narrow. Post-secondary money allocated for fiscal year 1979 to the four New Jersey counties studied in depth is as follows: Burlington County - $115,825; Mercer County - $104,800; Middlesex County - $159,425; Somerset County - $78,425. In addition to matching funds and post-secondary money, there is available federal money for courses in home economics and related occupations.

From interviews with specific adult school directors in Burlington, Mercer, Middlesex and Somerset Counties, several generalizations can be made with regard to the programming and funding of vocational programs and with regard to the role of the adult schools in the delivery of adult vocational education.

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[1] Robert Jacoby, memo to Mr. Louis Galloni on "Some Historical Background of Legislation for State Aid for the Maintenance of Evening Vocational Programs," March 24, 1976.

[2] *Ibid.*

Programming and Funding

The main thrust of adult school programming is in general enrichment classes and activities. Adult Basic Education, High School Completion, English as a Second Language, and Naturalization Education, if grouped together, comprise a secondary emphasis. Vocational and technical education was estimated by nearly all adult school directors contacted as comprising 10-20% of their programs. Based upon program enrollment figures for the year ending June 30, 1977, percentage figures* for selected adult schools in the four counties are as follows:

County	Percent Vocational & Technical	Percent Office Practice & Dist. Ed.*	Total Vocational**
Burlington County:			
Cinnaminson	8%	21%	29%
Rancocas Valley Reg.	7%	13%	20%
Willingboro	10%	7%	17%
Mercer County:			
East Windsor Reg.	8%	9%	17%
Ewing Township	11%	4%	15%
Hamilton Township	4%	11%	15%
Middlesex County:			
East Brunswick	3%	18%	21%
Edison	5%	12%	17%
Old Bridge	7%	13%	20%
New Brunswick	0%	28%	28%
Perth Amboy	1%	6%	7%
South Plainfield	4%	6%	10%
Somerset County:			
Bound Brook	6%	12%	18%
Franklin Township	7%	18%	25%
North Plainfield	7%	10%	17%
Watchung Hill Reg.	3%	11%	14%

*Schools were identified by the Director of General Adult and Community Education as having vocational and technical courses.

**Office Practice and Distributive Education enrollments were reported separately from the general curriculum area of vocational and technical education until 1977. From 1978 on, Office Practice and Distributive Education enrollments are reported as a part of Vocational-Technical programs.

Thus enrollment figures and director estimates place the adult schools' involvement in vocational education (including office-related courses) at around 20%. This does not necessarily reflect the percent of funding from vocational-technical state and federal sources. For example, one adult school director receives no state or federal funding for vocational education but estimated that 15% of his program was vocational in nature. Another director whose school is in an urban setting estimated that 70% of the courses are vocational if one included the vocationally-oriented language program; 20% of these courses are funded through state or federal monies.

While directors might consider their courses to be vocational, some do not want to become involved in the paper work necessary to obtain funds. Also, a course or activity may not meet the guidelines established by the Director of Adult Vocational Education. Thirdly, instructors in such funded programs must meet State Vocational Educational certification requirements and an adult school director may not run a class with an uncertified instructor.

A few adult schools have daytime vocational programs. As with the evening programs, although a wide variety of courses is offered statewide, office occupation courses are the most prevalent. The availability of facilities is the single most important factor in determining whether day programs can be offered. That is, the few adult schools which have their own building are in a position to offer day programs.

Some observations can be made about the type of vocational courses offered in adult schools. As noted earlier in this section, there is a great number of possible courses an adult school might offer within the vocational-technical curriculum area. According to the Director of Adult Vocational and Technical Education in New Jersey, while certain adult schools might concentrate on offering a set of courses within one of the vocational clusters, there is a great variety of courses offered statewide. What is offered at any one adult school depends upon:

1) demand in the area - courses such as Food Handling, Licensed Practical Nursing (LPN), Commercial Baking, Air-Conditioning and Refrigeration have been offered at certain adult schools because of the potential employability of students in these areas.

2) facilities and equipment - some courses require special facilities such as laboratories and shops; others require special equipment such as computers and machinery. An adult school may or may not be housed in facilities which can accommodate particular program requirements.

3) presence of other deliverers of vocational-technical education—that is, if a county vocational-technical school or county college nearby already offers the course (especially those which require special equipment) the adult school is more likely to refer a student than attempt to compete.

Role of Adult School in the Delivery of Vocational Education

While there is a variety of courses offered state-wide, the adult schools' primary emphasis in vocational education appears to be on business and office-related skills. All of the adult schools contacted in the four counties reported courses related to office skills as their major investment in vocational education. Courses such as Typing I and II, Shorthand, Bookkeeping and Accounting, Business English and Mathematics, Business Machines, Back to Business and the like comprise the bulk of vocational courses in adult schools. Other courses mentioned were Carpentry, Electrical, Health Occupations, Food Service, Welding, Automotive Repair, Small Engine Repair, Basic Sewing, etc.

Adult school directors in all four counties explained their business preparation and office skills emphasis in terms of: 1) the number of businesses in their area which need entry level people; 2) availability of facilities in high schools for holding such classes; and 3) adult schools emphasizing what they can do best in the vocational area. One director, in explaining why she was not offering industrial or highly technical courses said, "There is no point in offering inadequately what they (the vo-tech school or community college) offer so well."

Adult school directors in the four counties were asked to define the role of adult schools as a provider of vocational and technical education in comparison to other providers. Most felt that the adult schools can develop skills at an entry level, provide "refresher" or "brush-up" service, and introduce people to various employment areas. Adults can use the adult school to sample or survey different subjects at little lost to themselves in either time or money. Residents are likely to chose a course at an adult school rather than the vocational-technical school or community college for several reasons:

1) Proximity to home and possibly familiarly with the facility;

2) Shorter time commitment and in some cases, lower tuition;

3) Direct matching of need and service; that is, a student who wants to learn to type need not become involved in general education courses, credit programs, etc.;

4) No pressure in terms of performance, examinations, etc.

In contrast, adult school directors felt that county vocational schools were best at providing the types of skilled crafts and heavy industrial training that required facilities and equipment generally unavailable to adult schools. With regard to the county colleges, most felt that a different type of clientele was interested in credit-bearing work which usually involves a longer commitment and greater financial investment. A few directors expressed a desire for a clearer identification of the community college's role in terms of non-credit continuing education or community service. This concern was expressed in Middlesex County which has a county college with a vigorous outreach program. For the most part, however, adult schools see their role as fairly clearly defined in terms of vocational education. That their niche in vocational education is apparently responding to a community need is supported by the Descriptive Profile Adult School Survey. When asked to rank the difficulty their school had recruiting students for various program areas, adult school directors ranked vocational education second to general enrichment in terms of "little or no difficulty."[1]

In summary, the involvement of adult schools in vocational and technical education is determined primarily by what they are best able to provide. Although a broad range of vocational courses can be found statewide, office and business related preparation comprises the major emphasis in most adult schools. The involvement in vocational education relative to other program areas is relatively small (20% being the most commonly mentioned proportion). However, adult school directors feel that the schools are providing a service to their communities in the vocational area which is not being provided by other institutions. That is, adult schools offer the opportunity for quick and inexpensive sampling of courses, or preparation for entry or re-entry into a vocational career area.

Analysis and Evaluation of Adult School's Involvement In Vocational Education

Adult schools are but one vehicle for providing vocational opportunities to adults in a given county in New Jersey. Two other major providers are the county vocational-technical schools and the county colleges. In an attempt to coordinate the efforts of these sponsoring agencies, an adult education advisory committee has been established in each county. The committee membership consists of adult school directors, representatives from the county vo-tech school, the county college and other institutions of higher education, the county superintendent, and any other representative of an organization whose activities relate to adult education. As suggested in a memo from the Division of Field Services in the Department of Education, the functions of the committee are to:

1) assist in the assessment of the educational needs of the adults of the county;

2) determine the most effective means of meeting these needs;

3) assist and encourage the establishment of programs and activities necessary to meet these needs;

4) take whatever steps necessary to coordinate these programs and activities;

5) disseminate information relating to these adult education offerings throughout the county.[2]

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[1] "A Descriptive Profile of Public School Adult Education Programs in New Jersey, 1977," op.cit. p. 8.

[2] "Cooperative Approach to Adult Education on a County Basis," Memo from Division of Field Services, January 31, 1967.

The directive also attempted to establish guidelines for the offering of non-credit adult education courses. Assuming there are enough students to support a course and a local school has adequate facilities, then a course should be offered through the local school district. If there are not enough students on a local basis but sufficient numbers are available county-wide, then any one of the sponsoring agencies may offer such a course. Likewise, if adequate facilities are lacking in a local public school, any other sponsoring agency with the appropriate facilities may offer the course.[1] These guidelines would seem to give a priority to adult schools for offering non-credit courses.

When adult school directors in Burlington, Mercer, Middlesex and Somerset Counties were asked about their county Adult Education Advisory Committee, most felt that it was functioning primarily as a communication mechanism through which various adult education organizations kept abreast of each other's activities. Members cooperate in the exchange of information and occasionally instructors, and act as a sounding board for new ideas. Somerset's committee does an annual survey of county educational needs. The committees do not appear to spend time deciding which institutions should offer which programs.

Among adult schools in some areas there is a lot of duplication of courses. Typing, for example, is offered by at least four different adult schools within a ten mile radius in Middlesex County. Directors felt that this duplication was healthy and that it did not really cause an enrollment decline for any one school because the demand was great enough to support similar classes. Also, residents prefer to take a course in a school they are familar with even when it means traveling a few extra miles. In Somerset County, for example, adults are more likely to attend the program in a school attended by their children even though it may not be the closest program.

As mentioned earlier, adult schools do not compete with the county vocational school adult programs. Adult schools have defined their role as providing vocational education which does not require sophisticated equipment and heavy industrial facilities. Most adult school directors, in fact, reported making referrals to the county vocational schools for these types of programs. In the area of office occupations and business skills in which both institutions may offer courses, the individual student need seems to determine where the course will be taken. Some adult schools offer such courses as "refresher" or as introductory preparation while other adult schools can and do provide an in-depth office occupation preparation. A student desiring in-depth preparation may opt for the adult school or the county vocational school based upon location, cost, etc. The demand for such courses is great enough, at least in the four counties studied, to fill classes in both institutions.

When considering non-credit classes, the county college perhaps poses more potential competition to the adult schools than does the county vocational school. While there is at present enough students to fill both institutions' classes in non-credit offerings, a few adult school directors expressed concern that the county colleges' activity in this area should be limited or at least defined so as not to infringe upon adult school programs (such concern arose in Burlington and Middlesex counties). For the most part, however, directors felt that adults prefer to come to adult schools because of proximity and familiarity. Directors felt no threat from county colleges in reference to credit-bearing courses and often offered such courses in their programs(from other institutions of higher education as well as county colleges). They felt that students interested in credit programs are not the same ones that adult schools attract.

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[1] "Cooperative Approach to Adult Education on a County Basis," Memo from Division of Field Services, January 31, 1967.

Institutions of higher education, in fact, appear to be one of the stronger linkages that adult schools have with other organizations. Nearly all adult schools surveyed in the four counties offered credit courses sponsored by the county college or four year schools. The higher education institution typically pays the adult school $50 per course to cover indirect costs. Adult schools benefit from this arrangement in at least two ways: 1) they serve the community in yet another way by offering college-level courses in the vacinity, and 2) GED and adult high school graduates are able to start college in a familiar, non-threatening setting (often the same building).

CETA appears to be another major linkage some adult schools have established. There is, however, a great diversity of opinion as to the benefits of contracting with CETA. Some adult school directors want to have nothing to do with their county's CETA operation, while others receive substantial funding from CETA for special programs. An adult school's interest in linking with CETA appears to be a function of several factors:

1) the particular county CETA operation - adult school directors in Burlington County were adamant about not becoming involved with CETA due to perceived administrative ineptness, poor personel relationships, anticipated bureaucratic paperwork, etc. On the other hand, several adult schools in both Somerset and Middlesex counties had established good working relationships with CETA.

2) the size of the adult school - the larger adult schools (by enrollment) in Mercer, Middlesex and Somerset counties have contracts with CETA. CETA is perceived as a means of both establishing and maintaining a large program.

3) the adult school director - those directors with the larger programs also appeared to be most interested in expanding their offerings and viewed CETA as a good funding source for achieving their goals.

In addition to institutions of higher education and CETA, adult schools link on occasion with other organizations for programmatic offerings. One school, for example, has linked with the county Bar Association to offer a series of courses in Law for the Layperson. Other such linkages have been with the Red Cross, Insurance, Banking and Real Estate Agencies, hospitals, Y's, Travel agencies, and occasionally a business or industry. These organizations can provide the adult school director with a specialized program including an instructor qualified or certified in the subject. Linkages with these sources of expertise is one method directors use to expand their school's offerings.

Most adult school directors reported their major cooperation with other organizations as being in the form of referrals. One director felt that referring people to other institutions was in keeping with the philosophy of an adult school existing to help people. Part of its role is to have information and make referrals. Community residents then view the adult school as people-conscious and helpful. Directors also maintain close ties with service organizations and other educational institutions for the purpose of making their program visible and to share instructional staff.

Summary and Conclusions

From an in-depth look at adult schools in four diverse counties in New Jersey, some generalizations can be made with regard to the place of adult schools in the delivery system of adult vocational education. To begin with, there is a great amount of similarity among the adult schools in terms of programs, operation, administration and financing. This appears to be the case even though the counties studied ranged from largely rural/agricultural (Burlington) to urban/suburban/industrial (Middlesex).

Adult schools, on the whole, emphasize enrichment programs and vocational-technical offerings rarely exceed 20%. It is interesting to note that this percentage of vocational offerings has changed little over the last fifty years. Leon Broudy's study of the "new-type adult schools" of the late 1930's revealed 15% of their programming devoted to vocational subjects.[1] A report twenty years later (1957-58) prepared for the State Tax Policy Committee reported enrollment in vocational and technical courses in New Jersey Community Adult Education Programs to be 19%.[2]

Funding of vocational programs in adult schools reflects the relatively low percentage of programs which are considered vocational. Directors often reported state vocational funding as supporting only a portion of their overall vocational educational offerings. Of the 15% post-secondary funds which go to each county, the vocational-technical school and county college have traditionally divided the allotment. Funding from CETA or other community agencies has been relatively minimal (compared with CETA contracts to other institutions). As mentioned earlier, most funding for adult schools is fee-generated.

The fact that adult schools are not a major provider of adult vocational education (in comparison to county vocational schools and county colleges) does not detract from the value of what they are doing. They have carved out a niche and provide a service which other deliverers do not. That is, they offer short, inexpensive, pressure-free classes and activities to adults who want to sample vocational areas, develop entry level skills, re-train or renew old skills. This is especially evident in the area of business and office skills. This role has been partly determined by the other providers within a county, in that the community college can offer credit-bearing work and the vocational school can offer courses dependent upon special facilities and equipment. The adult school has also recognized where it can function best in the delivery system of adult vocational education, has developed that program area, and has been able to capitalize upon the features which set the adult school apart from other educational institutions.

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[1] Leon Broudy, op.cit. p. 14.

[2] "Financing Adult Education in New Jersey," op.cit. p. 19.

CHAPTER 5

CETA*

Data for this paper were obtained through several sources, including formal and informal interviews, public documents and reports, newspaper and journal articles, seminars, plans and other documents and information sheets from individual prime sponsors, and statistics compiled by the New Jersey State Manpower Services Council. Only a few interviews of representatives of CETA prime sponsers were conducted as compared with the number of interviews of representatives of community colleges, vocational-technical schools, and adult schools. The main reason for this is that the other three agencies were viewed as the major providers of training, while CETA falls more in the category of an enabler; that is, CETA usually subcontracts with these agencies and/or private organizations, thus funding training programs of the outside providers. Near the end of this study, it was felt that CETA played such an important role in the delivery system of adult vocational training that it deserved more than just passing mention in the final report. Thus it was decided that as much data as possible should be collected and a separate Chapter written on CETA. Because of CETA's complexity, and the researchers' limited knowledge of the agency, most of the interview time was spent in trying to understand the several components of CETA and its manner of operation. This Chapter is, then, more descriptive than analytical, but hopefully it will provide a background for the more analytical Chapters on the major providers.

Nature of CETA

History

The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), signed into a law in December 1973, was an effort to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of manpower programs. Prior to its passage there were numerous categorical manpower programs funded through federal legislation, among them Job Corps, Neighborhood Youth Corps, WIN (Work Incentive Program), Concentrated Employment Program, Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS), Public Service Careers Program, and others. Each of these had its own target group, its own purpose, its own set of rules and regulations, its own administrative structure, its own funding period, and so on. It was recognized by legislators as well as by program administrators that the lack of coordination among these programs was due, at least in part, to the legislation which created them. Duplication of services, competition for clients, and even counterproductivity often resulted. Further, there was a lack of flexibility at the local level since funds designated for a particular type of program or target group could not be shifted as local needs changed. In fact, local and state governments had little say in how these programs were administered since federal grants were awarded to various local agencies not under the control of state or local governments, and funded agencies reported directly to the federal government.[1]

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*By Jane F. Flaherty

The purpose of the CETA legislation was to bring all manpower programs under a single agency at the local level in order to promote flexibility in meeting varied and changing local needs as well as coordination of all manpower activities (counseling, training, placement, etc.). The Act[2] created what was intended to be a decategorized and decentralized comprehensive manpower program, allowing local authorities to determine their own priorities with regard to target groups, types of services, and so on.[3] As will be discussed later, this philosophy has not been carried out to the degree originally intended.

Purpose and Philosophy

The purpose of CETA, as stated in the legislation is "to provide job training and employment opportunities for economically disadvantaged, unemployed, and underemployed persons, and to assure that training and other services lead to maximum employment opportunities and enhance self-sufficiency by establishing a flexible and decentralized system of Federal, State, and local programs."[4]

This statement of purpose was intentionally indefinite and all-encompassing, allowing government units funded under the Act to identify areas and populations of greatest need and to develop suitable programs to meet these needs. While the manpower programs that existed under the legislative Acts that preceded CETA [Area Redevelopment Act (ARA) of 1961, Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) of 1962, Economic Opportunity Act (EOA) of 1964, and Emergency Employment Act (EEA) of 1971] provided specialized, nationally-determined programs for target groups identified in the legislation (e.g., those persons experiencing structural unemployment, youth, minorities, older workers, and the economically disadvantaged)—programs administered by separate and often competing sponsors—CETA was intended to meet the needs of all groups in need of manpower services with priorities determined by local government officials.[5] The CETA legislation, therefore, was the vehicle by which sweeping philosophical changes were brought to U.S. Department of Labor's approach to the nation's manpower problems through incorporation of the following basic concepts:[6]

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[1] "CETA Goals and Accomplishments: A Year of Progress," in Yearbook of Adult and Continuing Education, 1977-78, (Chicago: Marquis Academic Media, 1977), p. 435.

[2] U.S. Congress, The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (Containing Amendments Enacted in 1974, 1976, and 1977), P.L. 93-203 as amended.

[3] "CETA Goals and Accomplishments," p. 435.

[4] CETA, Sec. 2.

[5] "CETA Goals and Accomplishments," p. 435.

[6] Ibid.

1) Decentralization - Primary responsibility for planning and operation of CETA programs is at the state and local levels rather than at the federal level, reflecting the assumption that local government officials, who are closer and more immediately accountable to the people requiring employment and training services, can best plan programs and set priorities geared to the needs of their particular areas.

2) Consolidation & Coordination - The previous network of direct U.S. Department of Labor (DOL) contracts with many diverse local sponsoring agencies, without any provision for overall management for local areas as a whole, was largely replaced by a system of block grants to the chief elected officials at the state and local government levels, who are responsible for planning and managing the total program. The rationale for this provision is that local officials have greater sensitivity to local conditions and are therefore better able to minimize duplication and overlap and achieve greater coordination with other employment and training resources in the community. Thus, a single comprehensive program at the local level can be developed which addresses the full range of needs related to training and employment including counseling, training, placement, and such supportive services as child care and transportation.

3) Decategorization - CETA encourages localized, flexible responses to current or anticipated manpower needs. The individual "prime sponsors" (local elected officials) decide whether they will develop all the programs provided for by the earlier categorical legislation, including classroom training, on-the-job training, work experience, public service employment, counseling, placement, child care, and so on, or whether they will restrict program offerings in order to intensify services in response to local needs. Further, they can apportion the amount of funding they see fit to each program activity. These decisions are formulated in a formal plan that each prime sponsor develops and submits to the Department of Labor as a condition for funding.

Clientele

There are three broad target groups under CETA: the economically disadvantaged, the unemployed and the underemployed.[1] While prime sponsors are required by the legislation to assure that services will be provided to those "most in need," this is qualified by the phrase "to the maximum extent feasible,"[2] and there is less focus on the disadvantaged than there was under previous legislation. The clientele of earlier programs was predominantly the disadvantaged—by law and by social policy—except for the temporary EEA program, which has been incorporated into CETA. EOA programs were exclusively for the unemployed and underemployed in families defined as living in poverty. Under MDTA the policy was that a minimum of two-thirds of participants be from the disadvantaged population.[1] Due to high unemployment levels during the period following the passage of CETA, many newly unemployed persons were not disadvantaged but were eligible for enrollment in CETA programs simply because they were unemployed—particularly under Title II and VI programs.[2] There is much discussion about eligibility requirements in the current revision taking place in the CETA legislation, and it is likely that there will be increased emphasis on jobs and training for the "hard-core" unemployed.[3] The National Commission for Manpower Policy has made some strong recommendations in this regard.[4]

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[1] CETA, Sec. 102.

[2] CETA, Sec. 105(a).

By and large, CETA clients who have been receiving training are the younger, poorer, less educated, and female clients, while those who have been placed in public service employment tend to be white, male, over 21 and high school graduates.[5] There are, then two clienteles served by CETA—victims of structural unemployment who need training in job skills, and victims of cyclical unemployment who have skills but for whom jobs are not available due to cutbacks in the labor force. Their needs are met by two different types of programs, training and job development.

Funding and Programs

Funding under Titles I, II, and VI of CETA is granted to units of government called "prime sponsors"—generally cities or counties—with populations of at least 100,000. States may act as "balance-of-state" prime sponsors for smaller areas (usually rural) that are ineligible for direct funding because of small populations. Combinations of units of government, called "consortia," in which at least one governmental jurisdiction has a population of 100,000 or more may also be funded as prime sponsors.[6]

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[1] William Mirengoff and Lester Rindler, The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act: Impact on People, Places, Programs: An Interim Report (Washington, DC: National Academy of Sciences, 1976), p. 127.

[2] Ibid., pp. 1-2.

[3] "Senate Votes for Continuing CETA Program," The Courier-News (New Jersey), August 26, 1978.

[4] Third Annual Report to the President and Congress of the National Commission for Manpower Policy: An Assessment of CETA (Washington, DC: National Commission for Manpower Policy, 1978), pp. 4-6.

[5] "CETA Goals and Accomplishments," pp. 446-447; Westat, Inc., Continuous Longitudinal Manpower Survey, Report No. 6: Characteristics of New Enrollees in CETA Programs During Fiscal Year 1976 (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, 1977).

[6] "CETA Goals and Accomplishments," p. 436.

In New Jersey there are 22 prime sponsors: five city prime sponsors (Camden, Trenton, Newark, Paterson, and Elizabeth); five balance-of-county prime sponsors (the counties in which the city prime sponsors are located—Camden, Mercer, Essex, Passaic, and Union); one consortium (Hudson County including Jersey City); ten total counties (Bergen, Morris, Somerset, Middlesex, Monmouth, Ocean, Atlantic, Burlington, Cumberland, and Gloucester) and the Balance-of-state prime sponsor which is administered by the State of New Jersey and includes the remaining five counties (Sussex, Warren, Hunterdon, Cape May, and Salem).[1]

Funds appropriated by Titles, I, II, and VI of CETA are allotted to prime sponsors on the basis of three separate formulas which reflect the prime sponsor's prior year's funding, number of low-income adults, and number of unemployed persons in the prime sponsor's geographic area, as shown by Table 1. Eighty percent of Titles I and II and 90 percent of Title VI is distributed to prime sponsors, while the remainder of each Title's funds are designated as discretionary for use of state and federal governments.

Table I

Elements and Weights in CETA Allocation Formulas,
Titles I, II, and VI

Discretionary and Formula Amounts	Percent Distribution		
	Title I	Title II	Title VI
Discretionary amount	20	20	10
Formula amount	80	80	90
Total	100	100	100
Formula elements:			
Prior year's funds	50	-	-
Adults in low-income	12.5	-	-
Number unemployed	37.5	-	50
Above 4.5% rate	-	-	25
Areas of subst. unemployment[a]	-	100	25
Total	100	100	100

Source: Mirengoff and Rindler, The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act, p. 33.

[a] Areas with unemployment rate of 6.5 percent or more for 3 consecutive months.

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[1] NJSMSC 1977 Report, pp. 66-79.

Title I funds are designated primarily for prime sponsor training programs. Thirty-seven and one-half percent of the amount distributed to prime sponsors is based on the relative number of unemployed persons in the prime sponsor's geographic areas, while only 12.5 percent is based on the relative number of low-income adults living in prime sponsor areas. The greater emphasis on unemployment as compared with poverty under CETA has caused a shift in the geographic areas that receive greatest manpower funding.[1] In order to prevent sudden large cutbacks in funding, 50 percent of the funds are distributed to prime sponsors on the basis of their previous year's funding; further, prime sponsors are guaranteed at least 90 percent of their previous year's funding, and may not receive more than 150 percent of their prior year's funds.[2] The Title I discretionary funds include 5 percent of the title's funds as grants to governors to be used to provide vocational education services to prime sponsors through state departments of education. Amounts of the remaining 15 percent discretionary funds are used by the governors for flexible state activities, for State Manpower Service Councils, for incentives for consortia formation, for supplementary money to insure prime sponsors of 90 percent of their previous year's funding, and for other activities at the discretion of the Secretary of Labor.[3]

The purpose of Title I is to provide comprehensive manpower services throughout the nation including "development and creation of job opportunities and the training, education, and other services needed to enable individuals to secure and retain employment at their maximum capacity".[4] Activities to achieve this purpose may include outreach, assessment, referral, orientation, counseling, education, on-the-job training, classroom training, work experience, supplementary services such as child care, health care, transportation, transitional public service employment, development of labor market information, and others.[5] Activities related to CETA training programs will be discussed in more detail later.

Title II funds are used primarily for providing transitional public service employment for persons residing in areas of high unemployment.[6] Funds go to prime sponsors who have within their jurisdictions areas where the unemployment rate has been above 6.5 percent for at least three consecutive months.[7] If such an area is a municipality of more than

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[1] Mirengoff and Rindler, p. 34ff.

[2] Ibid., p. 27.

[3] Ibid., p. 29.

[4] CETA, Sec. 101.

[5] CETA, Sec. 101.

[6] CETA, Sec. 201.

[7] CETA, Sec. 204(c).

50,000 population, the prime sponsor must delegate the decision-making authority with regard to expenditure of funds to that unit of government.[1] The 20 percent discretionary funds are distributed by the Secretary of Labor based on unemployment severity.[2]

Title VI was added to the Act in December 1974 in response to the unusually high national unemployment rate, authorized by the Emergency Jobs and Unemployment Assistance Act (EJUAA). Its funds were intended to create public service jobs for an emergency period.[3] The formula for fund allocation to prime sponsors has three parts: 50 percent is allotted based on relative total number of unemployed persons in prime sponsor areas, 25 percent is for areas of prime sponsor jurisdictions having unemployment rates above 4.5 percent, and 25 percent is for areas with unemployment rates above 6.5 percent as for Title II. The 10 percent discretionary funds are used as the Secretary of Labor deems appropriate.[4]

Decisions regarding expenditure of monies granted to prime sponsors under Titles I, II, and VI are made by the prime sponsors themselves. Although the Title II and VI money may be used for training according to the law, very little if any, is used in this manner—either nationally[5] or in New Jersey.[6] Also, while Title I funds may be used for public service employment purposes, New Jersey prime sponsors spent only small amounts of these funds in this manner during fiscal year 1977; 80 percent of Title I funds were used for training, while most of the remaining 17 percent were used for services to clients.[7] These three titles, however, exhibit to a great degree the characteristics of decentralization and decategorization intended by the CETA legislation.

Monies provided by Titles III, IV, V, and VIII of CETA are administered by the Department of Labor (DOL). These titles, therefore, are not decentralized, nor are they decategorized; the funds are designated for specific populations and specific types of activities. Grants are made to prime sponsors and others through a process of proposal competition.

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[1] CETA, Sec. 204(d).

[2] CETA, Sec. 202(b).

[3] Mirengoff and Rindler, p. 33.

[4] Mirengoff and Rindler, p. 33.

[5] "CETA Goals and Accomplishments," p. 445.

[6] NJSMSC 1977 Report, p. 92-93.

[7] Ibid.

Title III provides nationally sponsored and supervised training and job placement for special groups including older workers, persons with limited English-speaking ability, Indians, migrant and seasonal farm workers, in-school and out-of-school youth, and others with particular labor market disadvantages.[1] It also provides for research and development and compilation of labor market information and job banks.[2] Some of the Title III programs may be run by prime sponsors and coordinated with Title I, II, and VI programs, although other organizations may also be funded by the federal government to run programs under this title. Part C of Title III, added in August 1977 with the passage of the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA), provides for "a variety of employment, training and demonstration programs to explore methods of dealing with the structural unemployment problems of the Nation's Youth."[3] Subpart 3 of this part[4] — Youth Employment and Training Programs (YETP) — provides for funding of prime sponsors by formula in a manner similar to Titles I, II, and VI. Of the funds available for this subpart, 75 percent is available to prime sponsors and another 5 percent is available to governors for statewide youth services, both amounts allotted by the following formula: 37.5 percent based on the relative number of unemployed persons in the states, 37.5 percent based on the relative number of unemployed persons in areas where unemployment is over 6.5 percent, as for Title II, and 25 percent based on the relative number of low-income persons.[5]

Title IV[6] provides for Job Corps, a residential and nonresidential program of intensive education, training, and counseling for disadvantaged young men and women between the ages of 16 and 21. The Secretary of Labor may make agreements with federal, state, or local agencies or private organizations for the establishment and operation of Job Corps centers. The Job Corps Center in Edison (Kilmer) is run by the New Jersey State Department of Education under a Title IV grant.

Title V[7] establishes a national commission for manpower policy appointed by the President, and is composed of federal, state, and locally elected officials involved in manpower programs, persons served by manpower programs and members of the general public. The purpose is to identify manpower needs, conduct research, evaluate the effectiveness of any federally assisted manpower development program and report annually to the President and Congress.

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[1] CETA, Title III, Part A, Secs. 301-306.

[2] Ibid., Part B, Secs. 311-315.

[3] CETA, Sec. 321.

[4] CETA, Secs. 341-348.

[5] CETA, Sec. 343.

[6] CETA, Secs. 401-419.

[7] CETA, Secs. 501-506.

Finally, Title VIII[1], created by YEDPA in August 1977, establishes the Young Adult Conservation Corps (YACC) to "provide employment and other benefits to youths who would not otherwise be currently productively employed, through a period of service during which they engage in useful conservation work and assist in completing other projects of a public nature on federal and non-federal public lands and water."[2] The program is administered by the Secretaries of Interior and Agriculture, who with the approval of the Secretary of Labor may make grants to or contracts with units of local government and public or private nonprofit agencies to carry out this purpose.

Administrative Structure and Staffing

Under CETA, prime sponsors (local elected officials) have the responsibility for funding and administration of training and employment programs. Thus there is a single communication route between each funded geographic area and the regional office of the federal Employment and Training (formerly Manpower) Administration. Although CETA has not necessarily reduced the number of organizations that provide manpower services, most of them are now subcontractors of prime sponsors rather than independent operators.

As explained earlier, prime sponsors may be cities, counties, consortia, or balance-of-state. Prime sponsors may—at their own discretion—set up a new and separate agency to administer CETA, they may merge CETA with an already existing manpower agency, they may set up the manpower offices as a unit in the city or county executive's office, or they may make it a function of an existing governmental division or unit such as the personnel office.[3] Consortia may set up a consortium board to which the CETA manpower unit reports or the unit may report directly to the central city or county of the consortium.[4] Regardless of which arrangement is made by each prime sponsor, the local CETA agency is directly or indirectly responsible to the chief elected official of the city or county, or in the case of balance-of-state prime sponsors, to the governor. Roles of elected officials vary, although they are ultimatley responsible to DOL for proper management of their CETA agencies. But the decisionmaking process under CETA is complex, and opinions differ as to where the power lies in the formal local CETA structure—with the elected officials, the CETA administrator—who is hired by the elected officials—the CETA staff, or the CETA Planning (Advisory) Councils.[1] While day-to-day administration is delegated, elected local officials in most areas have participated in setting up the organizational structure and making key decisions regarding roles and priorities.[2] Degree of involvement of elected officials, of course, varies dependent upon the structure of the local government, the political expediency of being involved in CETA operations, and other factors. Typically the local manpower (CETA) office is responsible for program supervision but receives support from regular departments of the local government for certain technical servies, such as payroll, legal approval of contracts, and payment of contractors.[3] Manpower has thus become an increasingly integral component of public administration.[4]

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[1] CETA, Secs. 801-810.

[2] CETA, Sec. 801.

[3] Mirengoff and Rindler, pp. 72-73.

[4] Ibid, p. 73.

Prior to CETA, regional federal offices handled planning, administration, and evaluation functions. The decentralization concept of CETA has shifted responsibility for fiscal accounting, reporting, contract administration, supervision of contractors' performance, and assessment of results from regional to local and state officials. Further, while prime sponsors are encouraged to contract with existing organizations to provide training and employment services,[5] they may elect to operate some programs directly.[6]

In short, prime sponsors (mayors, freeholders, governors) are responsible to the regional Employment and Training Administration office of the U.S. Department of Labor for their CETA operations. They generally hire a CETA director to perform the administrative functions related to CETA. Beyond this, prime sponsors set up the local organizations at their own discretion, and administrative structures vary. The Burlington County prime sponsor, for example, has five coordinators each of whom handles one of the following sections: Title I, Intake, Public Service Employment (Titles II & VI), Job Development and Youth Programs; and two managers, one of whom handles the Fiscal Section and the other supervising the Research and Development/Management Information System Section. The director and his deputy handle administrative and planning functions.[7] In Middlesex County there are seven departments: Fiscal, Field Operations, Monitoring and Evaluation, Services, Executive, EEO, and Planning. Each department has a "chief," second line management (non-supervisory), professionals, and clerical employees and other non-professionals.

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[1] Mirengoff and Rindler, p. 59.

[2] Ibid, p. 76.

[3] Ibid, p. 73.

[4] Ibid.

[5] CETA, Sec. 105 (a) (3).

[6] Mirengoff and Rindler, p. 93.

[7] Burlington County Employment and Training Administration, Organization Chart.

One of the problems of the changeover from previous manpower programs to CETA was that local governments were expected to perform functions with which most of them had little experience.[1] Prime sponsors had to set up the machinery for planning, funding, administering, coordinating, evaluating and reporting for training and employment programs in their geographic areas. Since this had previously been the responsibility of federal officials, many prime sponsors had difficulty assuming these responsibilities.[2] Dealing with the complexity of the programs, the need for reconciling diverse interests, pressures from subprogram operators and client groups, cumbersome procedures, and coordination of a comprehensive manpower system require high degrees of management skill.[3] According to a survey of prime sponsors by the Committee on Evaluation of Employment and Training Programs, staff inexperience was the most serious problem in organizing CETA at the local level.[4] Many prime sponsors initially hired administrators who had worked in earlier manpower programs, but who lacked the management skills required for administration of CETA. Other prime sponsors hired staffs with management skills, but little understanding of manpower.[5]

The difficulties of getting CETA programs off the ground were compounded by deadlines set by the Employment and Training Administration.[6] And new titles added to the CETA legislation in response to rising unemployment rates and needs of special groups brought with them massive new funds for new programs. This resulted in a fragmented array of planning/funding cycles with different time periods for various plans and, at times, different times of year for submitting them. Thus, local planners of the various CETA programs confronted difficulties in coordinating their plans, and efforts of local CETA administrators to develop a comprehensive program, as intended by the original ligislation, have been frustrated by legislative movement away from decategorization.

Along with the new CETA programs has come a proliferation of rules and regulations, eligibility requirements, forms deadlines. New staff must be hired, new plans made, new subcontractors selected, new linkages established, new monies allocated and accounted for, as each additional title or program is added to the legislation. CETA has thus been in a constant state of flux since its inception in 1973.

Irregularities, incompetence, and staff turnovers have also caused instability. Audits of CETA prime sponsors by the Labor Department have uncovered many problems "ranging from inept administrators to nepotism and from ineligible participants to financial conditions so bad that programs could not be audited."[1] The National Commission for Manpower Policy has pointed out that some abuses have probably occurred because of the legislation itself. In particular, the PSE programs have "loose eligibility standards" that "may have facilitated abuses such as enabling local sponsors to select individuals with whom they have personal or political ties."[2] The Labor Department claims that "only a tiny fraction" of CETA program mismanagement involves outright criminal fraud.[3]

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[1] "CETA Goals and Accomplishments," p. 442.

[2] Mirengoff and Rindler, p. 73.

[3] Ibid., p. 74.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid.

[6] Ibid.

Examples of fiscal and staffing problems have been seen in New Jersey. An investigative newspaper article precipitated the dismissal of a former Middlesex County CETA director. Further, local prime sponsors have uncovered irregularities in operations of subcontractors. Somerset County Employment and Training Agency, for example, "defunded" two community-based organizations during FY 1978 for fiscal improprieties and noncompliance with the terms of the subcontract by failing to demonstrate "the ability to place participants in unsubsidized employment at the conclusion of the training cycle."[4] Two local prime sponsors that have had staff problems are Burlington County CETA, which has had five directors in three years, and Middlesex County CETA, whose employees walked off the job in an attempt to get a contract.[5]

In spite of all this turmoil, CETA quarterly reports indicate actual expenditures and clients served are very near those they had projected,[6] and recently published results of DOL audits of New Jersey CETA agencies resulted in "relatively good marks in financial management," even though some have had and are still having some problems in the area of effective management.[7] Whether the new CETA legislation presently being considered by Congress will help or hinder local CETA organizations remains to be seen.

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[1] "CETA probe: Where did the money go?" The Courier News (New Jersey), August 22, 1978.

[2] National Commission for Manpower Policy Report, p. 5.

[3] "CETA audits shows little actual fraud," The Courier News (New Jersey), August 24, 1978.

[4] Somerset County Employment and Training Agency, CETA Title I Modification to Annual Plan for Fiscal Year 1978 (April 1, 1978).

[5] The Courier News, Spring 1978.

[6] New Jersey State Manpower Services Council, statistical data for first two quarters of FY 1978.

[7] "Area Job Programs Pass Fiscal Muster," The Courier News, August 24, 1978.

CETA and Adult Vocational Training in New Jersey

Funding

CETA allocations to local prime sponsors come primarily from Title I, Title II, and Title VI funding. Nearly all of the training that takes place is provided under Title I, while Titles II and VI provide for public service employment programs. Although Titles II and VI funds may be used for training, in FY 1977 New Jersey prime sponsors used only 1.2 percent of their funds for this purpose—and this small amount was used only for work experience programs, not for classroom training or on-the-job (OJT) training.[1] Similarly, although Title I monies may be used for public service employment, only 2.6 percent of CETA funds in New Jersey were used for this purpose.[2] In effect, then, Title I funds may be regarded as a close estimate of the amount of training money available.

Amounts of funding that have been available to New Jersey prime sponsors under Titles, I, II and VI of CETA are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

New Jersey Funding Available Under Titles I, II & VI of CETA
for Fiscal Years 1975, 76, 77, and 78
(in millions of dollars)

	FY 1975	FY 1976	FY 1977	FY 1978
Title I	1,580.0	1,580.0	1,880.0	1,951.4
Title II	400.0	400.0	192.5	192.5
Title VI	875.0	2,260.0	3,423.5	3,423.5
Total	2,855.0	4,240.0	5,496.0	5,567.4

Source: Amounts computed from data provided by NJ State Manpower Services Council.

According to these figures, the proportion of prime sponsor funds used for training (Title I) has decreased from 55 percent to 35 percent of their total funding. This has occurred because of the drastic increase in unemployment nationally during the past five year period, which has led Congress to appropriate more and more funding to counteract cyclical unemployment.

There are other CETA monies, however, that are used for training. Job Corps, under Title IV, is essentially a training program; certain

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[1] NJSMSC 1977 Report, p. 92.

[2] Ibid.

Title III programs are designed to meet the training needs of special groups — in-and-out-of-school youth, women, Indians, handicapped, and others; and Title VIII provides both employment and work experience for unemployed youth. However, these programs — except for YETP for in-school youth — are either nationally administered or funds are awarded to prime sponsors on a competitive basis rather than by formula. References to CETA programs in the remainder of this article will include only the decentralized programs — Titles I, II, and VI — unless otherwise stated, and the focus will be on Title I, which provides for virtually all training provided by CETA prime sponsors.

Training Programs

Most CETA training programs are one of three types: classroom training, on-the-job training (OJT), or work experience. CETA participants in classroom training programs receive specific skills training in jobs areas identified by the prime sponsor as having high demand and placement potential. For example, a large portion of Mercer County CETA's classroom training is in the secretarial area since the state government is the largest employer in the county and has need of many employees with clerical skills. Training programs are generally about six months in duration and participants receive allowances at minimum wage levels while in training.

OJT programs are offered in both public and private sectors. Participants are screened and selected by CETA for OJT openings offered by employers. CETA provides training subsidies to employers (about one-half the salary while in training) and participants receive prevailing wages according to their job classification. Training is provided by the employer at the worksite.

Work experience is designed to provide participants with work orientation and job readiness skills. Persons who have little work experience, such as young people and women, may be placed in a job situation in order to get needed experience. It is sometimes supplemented with remedial education—Adult Basic Education, High School Completion, or English as a Second Language.

In addition to training provided under Title I, supplementary services may also be provided to clients. Transportation, child care, health services, and other services are provided as needed to improve the employability of clients. Testing, counseling, and placement services are also provided.

In New Jersey during FY 1977, a total of 36,474 participants were served under Title I: 14,552 (40%) received work experience, 14,130 (39%) received classroom training, 7,204 (20%) received on-the-job training, and 588 (1.6%) were placed in public service employment.[1] Unpublished data from NJSMSC shows that during the first two quarters of FY 1978, 21,575 participants were served: only 28 percent receiving work experience and a mere .1 percent placed in public service employment, while 46 percent received classroom training and 25 percent on-the-job training. The focus has apparently shifted, with a higher percentage of new participants receiving classroom training and on-the-job training and fewer being placed in work experience programs and public service employment under Title I.[1] The shift may be due in part to the lowering of the state unemployment rate, which finally dropped below eight percent in September 1977 after reaching a high of nearly twelve percent in early 1976. When fewer jobs were available, employers were able to provide fewer on-the-job training positions for CETA clients. Because CETA pays for all of a work experience client's salary, more of these positions can be made available during times of high unemployment. The drop in unemployment in New Jersey thus shifted programming away from work experience to classroom and on-the-job training. The decreased emphasis on work experience and PSE under Title I may also be due to increased levels of funding available for Titles II and VI—$94.5 million for FY 1977 and $117.5 million for the first half of FY 1978.[2] There was little concurrent increase in available Title I funds—$56.6 million for FY 1977 and only $29.6 million for the first half of FY 1978.[3] Thus, there was apparently no rationale for using Title I funds for public service employment. In fact, some prime sponsors evidently used Titles II and VI monies for work experience as well, thus freeing more Title I money for classroom training and on-the-job training.

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[1] NJSMSC 1977 Report, p. 88.

Comparison of Five Prime Sponsors

Funding. Since unpublished detailed data on individual prime sponsors for two quarters of FY 1978 were made available to this study by NJSMSC, they will be used to illustrate the differences in funding, programs, and participants of the five prime sponsors located in the four counties that were examined in depth in this study—Somerset County, Mercer County, Trenton City, Middlesex County, and Burlington County. They will be supplemented by FY 1977 data which were available only in summary form.

Total funding for these prime sponsors for the first half of FY 1978 are shown in Table 3. Somerset County, having the lowest unemployment rate in the state, gets a relatively low level of funding. The populations of Somerset and Mercer Counties and of Trenton, as well as their relatively low unemployment rates, give them relatively low funding, although Trenton has pockets of high unemployment. Both Burlington and Middlesex Counties, having higher unemployment rates, and Middlesex County, having a larger total population, get higher levels of funding.

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[1] According to additional unpublished data from NJSMSC, during these two quarters 37,380 clients were placed in public service employment and 353 were placed in work experience under Titles II and VI. No participants were placed in on-the-job training or classroom training under these two titles.

[2] NJSMSC 1977 Report, p. 92; unpublished data from NJSMSC.

[3] Ibid.

Table 3

Expenditure Levels of Five New Jersey Prime Sponsors for First Half of FY 1978 (in millions of dollars)

	Title I	Title II	Title VI	Total
Somerset	.3	.3	1.5	2.1
Mercer	.5	.3	1.3	2.1
Trenton	.9	.4	1.9	3.2
Middlesex	2.4	2.0	7.8	12.2
Burlington	1.4	.8	3.2	5.4
Statewide	30.0	23.2	94.3	147.5

Source: Computed from unpublished data provided [illegible] Jersey SMSC.

Middlesex was the third largest prime sponsor in FY 1977 with $9.0 million, surpassed only by Newark and the Hudson-Jersey City Consortium which received $22.5 and $18.5 million respectively. Mercer County received the lowest funding in New Jersey in FY 1977 with $1.9 million and Somerset County received the second lowest with $2.2 million. Trenton received $3.6 million, ranking 17th among 22 New Jersey prime sponsors.[1]

Programs. Breakdowns in amounts of money used for various kinds of training and for services to clients for the five prime sponsors reveals differences in priorities and perceived suitability of various kinds of training. Table 4 shows the percentage of Title I monies used for each component by each of the five prime sponsors during the first half of FY 1978. Somerset used most of its money for classroom training and services to clients, with no monies for work experience. Mercer focused on classroom training and work experience, using little monies for OJT or services. Trenton used relatively large amounts for work experience and services, with very little for OJT and a lower than average amount for classroom training. Middlesex put a larger amount into classroom training and OJT than the other four prime sponsors. Burlington allotted slightly more than the state average to classroom training, work experience, and services but spent less than average on OJT. None of these prime sponsors used Title I money for public service employment.

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[1] NJSMSC 1977 Report, p. 97.

Table 4

Expenditures for Title I Components by Five Prime Sponsors during First Half of FY 1978 (in percents of total Title I funds)

	Classroom Training	OJT	PSE	Work Experience	Services	Total
Somerset	43	17	0	0	40	100
Mercer	53	9	0	30	9	100
Trenton	39	6	0	27	28	100
Middlesex	57	22	0	3	18	100
Burlington	49	9	0	20	22	100
Statewide	45	15	.1	21	19	100

Source: Computed from unpublished data provided by NJSMSC.

Enrollment figures give a slightly different picture, since program components have varying costs per participant to the various prime sponsors. Also when enrollments are examined, services to clients are excluded, since all clients receive some kind of services. Table 5 combines data from all three Titles to give an overall picture of enrollments in the various training programs as well as placements in public service employment. As stated above, virtually no participants in New Jersey have been placed in public service employment under Title I, and only a few participants have been placed in work experience under Titles II and VI. Neither crossover was used by any of the five prime sponsors for which individual data is reported below.

On the whole, nearly two-thirds of all CETA clients in New Jersey are placed in public service employment rather than in training programs. Of the five selected prime sponsors, Trenton placed the smallest proportion in this component (44%), while Middlesex placed the largest proportion there (73%) (see Table 5). Differences are based upon funding levels under the various titles as well as unemployment levels in the various prime sponsor areas. As seen in Table 3, Trenton receives $3.2 million, $2.3 million (or 72%) of which is under Titles II & VI, while Middlesex receives a total of $12.2 million, $9.8 million (or 80%) of which is under Titles II & VI. These data reflect the higher unemployment rate in Middlesex, as well as the greater number of clients placed in public service employment.

Table 6 shows the number and percentage of each prime sponsor's participants that are placed in each type of training program. Of the five prime sponsors, Mercer, Somerset, and Burlington place the greatest proportion of their clients in classroom training; Middlesex and Somerset are the most frequent users of OJT, and Trenton places the most in

Table 5

CETA Clients Placed in Four Program Components During First Half of FY 1978 by Five Prime Sponsors and Total Statewide Placements

		Classroom		OJT		PSE		Work Experience		Total	
		Titles	Total	Titles	Total	Titles	Total	Titles	Total	Titles	Total
Somerset	I	176	176	101	101	0	533	0	0	277	810
	II	0		0		121		0		121	
	VI	0	(22%)	0	(12%)	412	(66%)	0	(0%)	412	(100%)
Mercer	I	285	285	37	37	0	488	98	98	420	908
	II	0		0		72		0		72	
	VI	0	(31%)	0	(4%)	416	(54%)	0	(11%)	416	(100%)
Trenton	I	314	314	62	62	0	526	284	284	660	1186
	II	0		0		103		0		103	
	VI	0	(26%)	0	(5%)	423	(44%)	0	(24%)	423	(99%)[a]
Middlesex	I	587	587	574	574	0	3417	78	78	1239	4656
	II	0		0		634		0		634	
	VI	0	(13%)	0	(12%)	2783	(73%)	0	(2%)	2783	(100%)
Burlington	I	631	631	212	212	0	1366	263	263	1106	2472
	II	0		0		239		0		239	
	VI	0	(26%)	0	(9%)	1127	(55%)	0	(11%)	1127	(101%)[a]
State	I	10017	10017	5457	5457	18	37398	6083	6436	21575	59308
	II	0		0		6348		267		6615	
	VI	0	(17%)	0	(9%)	31032	(63%)	86	(11%)	31118	(100%)

Source: Compiled and computed from unpublished data provided by NJSMSC.

[a] Does not total 100% due to rounding.

Table 6

Participants Placed in Training Components
During First Half of FY 1978 by Five Prime
Sponsors and Total Statewide Placements

	Classroom		OJT		Work Experience		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Somerset	176	64	101	36	0	0	277	100
Mercer	285	68	37	9	98	23	420	100
Trenton	314	48	62	9	284	43	660	100
Middlesex	587	47	574	46	78	6	1239	99[a]
Burlington	631	57	212	19	263	24	1106	100
Statewide	10017	46	5457	25	6436	29	21910	100

Source: Compiled and computed from unpublished data provided by NJSMSC.

[a] Does not add to 100% due to rounding.

work experience. According to one CETA administrator, decisions are based upon types of jobs available in an area as well as the types of clients who apply to CETA.

Data on the types of classroom training provided by the prime sponsors are not available from reports submitted to the State Manpower Services Council. This is apparently an area over which prime sponsors wish to retain complete control without interference from SMSC, which monitors prime sponsors but has no direct authority over them. Although skill training must be geared to jobs that are available, it is difficult to substantiate lack of need for trained workers in specific job categories. Prime sponsors are required, however, to provide this information in their plans submitted to their regional Employment and Training Administration offices in order to obtain funding. CETA legislation states that plans must provide "assurances that programs of institutional training be designed for occupations in which skill shortages exist and assurances that such programs and training on the job, shall, wherever possible, result in employment that provides economic self-sufficiency."[1]

Examination of one prime sponsor's plan reveals justification of training areas in rather vague terms.[2] It states that "The principal occupational placements will be in 1) Clerical positions such as secretaries, clerk steno, clerk typist (18) out of the clerical slots.

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[1] CETA, Sec. 105.

[2] Somerset County Employment and Training Agency, CETA Title I Annual Plan FY '78 For Training, Supportive Services and Opportunities for Somerset County Residents. (August 15, 1977).

2) Medical secretaries, ward clerks, and medical office clerks (17) out of the Medical Secretary/Ward Clerk Course. 3) The balance will be varied occupations." The plan goes on to say that there will therefore be CETA courses and individual referrals to existing courses in these areas. An interview with the CETA director for another prime sponsor also revealed heavy emphasis on secretarial/clerical skills, but he justified it by explaining that the largest employer in his area is the state government, which requires many trained employees in this field.

Many classroom training placements are handled by individual referral to existing programs; others are placed in classes set up especially for CETA clients. Data delineating the extent of each practice was not readily available.

Participants. Characteristics of clients placed in Title I training programs by the five selected prime sponsors are given in Table 7.

Table 7

Characteristics of Participants Served Under Title I During First Half of FY 1978 by Five Prime Sponosors and Statewide (in Percents of Total Prime Sponsor Title I Clients)

	Somerset	Mercer	Trenton	Middlesex	Burlington	Statewide
Female	63	56	58	48	60	55
21 & under	37	37	42	36	32	41
22-44	56	46	47	56	54	48
45 & over	7	16	11	9	14	11
Economically Disadvantaged	68	45	93	63	58	73
Less than High School	35	44	47	33	29	40
Black	31	37	75	35	34	41
Unemployed	98	72	100	99	90	89

Source: Computed from unpublished data provided by NJSMSC.

Statewide, during the first half of FY 1978, more than half of Title I clients were female; the Somerset and Burlington clienteles were most heavily female while Middlesex served the fewest females of the five prime sponsors. Trenton served the most young adults (under 22), as did other cities in New Jersey, while Somerset, Middlesex, and Burlington served mostly middleaged (22-44) clients in Title I training programs. Mercer served the most people over 44. Most CETA Title I clients are economically disadvantaged, but to a greater extent in cities such as Trenton. Most had completed high school, but this is less true in Trenton and other cities. About one-third of each of the county prime sponsors' clients were black, while cities, such as Trenton whose populations are predominantly black, served mostly black clients. Most Title I participants in New Jersey were unemployed; Mercer served the smallest number of unemployed persons of the five prime sponsors.

As at the national level, New Jersey prime sponsors serve a different clientele under Titles II and VI—the non-training component of CETA. Those served under these titles in New Jersey in 1977 were only 35 percent female, 18 percent under 22, 50 percent disadvantaged, 23 percent with less than a high school education, 29 percent black, and 82 percent unemployed.[1] (Compare with statewide data for Title I in Table 7.) These were primarily people judged to have little or no need for training and capable of moving into jobs subsidized by CETA to combat cyclical unemployment.

Prime Sponsors' Relationship to Environment

Legal/Funding Requirements

The funding formulas and other legal requirements make CETA inherently related to its environment. More money is granted to geographic areas which have higher unemployment, and to a lesser extent more poor people; and funding is, of course, proportional to population size. Programs are provided which are thought to respond to needs of target populations—the unemployed, the underemployed, and the economically disadvantaged. Programs to meet the needs of special populations identified by the federal government, the local prime sponsor, or both are provided by law and funding.

Further, the law requires that in order to be funded, prime sponsors must submit annual plans which show evidence of their knowledge of and communication with the populations they serve. The plans must include:[2]

- A description of the geographic areas to be served.
- Data indicating the number of potential eligible applicants and their income and employment status.

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[1] Unpublished data from NJSMSC.

[2] CETA, Secs. 105, 205.

- Assurances that persons most in need of CETA programs and all significant segments of the population, will be served.

- Provisions for appropriate arrangements with community-based organizations (CBOs) serving the poverty community and other special target groups to be included in the planning process.

- Provisions for utilization of available services and facilities, including the State Employment Service, State vocational education and vocational rehabilitation agencies, area skill centers, local educational agencies (LEAs), postsecondary training and education institutions, and community action agencies. Private organizations that provide cost-effective services should not be excluded (e.g. businesses, labor organizations, private employment agencies, and private educational and vocational schools). Priority should be given to use of skills centers established under MDTA. Maximum use should be made of apprenticeship and other on-the-job training opportunities. There should be coordination with all other federal manpower-related programs.

- Assurances that the prime sponsor will maintain or provide linkages with existing DOL upgrading and other manpower programs.

- Assurances that its training programs are designed for occupations in which skill shortages exist and that they will result in employment which provides economic self-sufficiency.

- A description of unmet public service needs and a statement of priorities among them.

- A description of career opportunities and job advancement potentialities in PSE positions.

- A description of manpower needs of local governments and LEAs in the prime sponsor's area and assurances that PSE jobs will be allocated to these agencies equitably.

To provide all of this information and to carry out these assurances, prime sponsors must of necessity be knowledgeable of their area and be in communication with and cooperate with (at least to some degree) all agencies in any way involved or interested in training or employment—employers, schools, community groups, public and private agencies, and so on.

Prime sponsors must also, by law, establish and appoint planning councils which are representative of the client community, community-based organizations, the employment service, education and training agencies, business, and labor. The councils are to submit recommendations for program plans and basic goals, policies, and procedures; to monitor and evaluate programs, and to provide a continuing analysis of manpower needs.[1]

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[1] CETA, Sec. 104.

According to data collected through interviews, however, these planning councils often merely "rubber stamp" the CETA administrators' decisions.[1] Representatives of business and labor, in particular, frequently lack understanding of CETA and attend meetings primarily to fulfill an obligation rather than through any real involvement or interest in CETA programs. Also, planning council members tend to be representative of organizations that have been awarded CETA contracts. In their recommendations for new contract approval, they tend to approve their own proposals and non-member organizations sometimes have difficulty getting their proposals funded. At least one adult school director sought to be made a member of his prime sponsor's planning council in order to get his proposal approved—and was successful.

The State Manpower Services Council, also required by law,[2] is another means for communication and coordination of manpower services. This council must have representatives of prime sponsors as one-third of its membership. The remaining members must include representatives of the State Board of Vocational Education, the State Employment Service, the State Advisory Council on Vocational Education, other state agencies having interest in manpower training and utilization, organized labor, business and industry, community-based organizations, the client community, and the general public. However, although the Council includes representatives of the other groups involved in manpower activities, the linkages with these other groups are weak. Even coordination with the State Advisory Council on Vocational Education and the prime sponsor planning councils is inadequate.[3]

The 5 percent Title I Vocational Education monies is another aspect of the CETA legislation which encourages linkage.[4] The State Division of Vocational Education is granted 5 percent of all Title I funds for the purpose of providing vocational education services in areas served by prime sponsors. Usually this money goes for training programs in public or private vocational-technical schools or public adult schools. Some examples are: a program which will train 50 CETA participants during FY 1978 in Air Conditioning and Refrigeration by Middlesex County Vo-Tech High Schools; a Renal Dialysis Technician program at Perth Amboy Adult Skills Center (Adult School) for 50 Middlesex County CETA participants in FY 1978; a Clerk-Typist program at the New Jersey Job Corps Center in Edison, which is run under a CETA Title IV grant to the State Division of Vocational Education, to train 50 Middlesex County CETA clients.[1] Individual referrals are also made to area Vo-Tech Schools and to private vocational schools for various training programs they offer. In these programs, CETA clients attend classes along with regular students.

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[1] Interview with Cara Vaughn.

[2] CETA, Sec. 107.

[3] Opportunity for Linkage: An Analysis of Manpower & Related Advisory Councils in New Jersey (Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare Region II, 1977), p. 10.

[4] CETA, Secs. 103(c), 112.

Linkages with Education Agencies

Most prime sponsors have contractual linkages with one or more of the following types of education agencies: county vocational-technical schools, county community colleges,[2] public adult schools, and private trade schools that are approved by the New Jersey Department of Education. The examples which follow provide limited information on CETA linkages, being based upon interviews with representatives of only three of the five prime sponsors, copies of only one complete plan and parts of another, and some other miscellaneous reports and fact sheets. No printed or interview data was obtained from the Trenton prime sponsor. In some instances, data obtained from representatives of education agencies which have linkages with prime sponsors is used.

In Trenton, the Adult Vocational Technical Center, under the aegis of Mercer County Vo-Tech Schools, is run primarily with funds from Mercer County and City of Trenton prime sponsors. This former Manpower Skills Center has daytime programs in Clerical, Auto Mechanics, Auto Body, Graphics, Welding, Distribution Education, and Practical Nursing. The program is flexible in that clients may begin their training at any time during the year and all training is individualized. This center is the major trainer of CETA clients in Mercer County and Trenton prime sponsor areas. The CETA legislative requirement that priority be given to skills centers developed under MDTA is the apparent reason for this centralization of skills training. Although the prime sponsor interviewees indicated no administrative or coordination problems with the Center, officials of the Center explained that there had been severe problems stemming not only from non-communication between the two prime sponsors and their differing policies and procedures, but from inappropriate placements, lack of program monitoring authority of the Center, an overwhelming amount of paperwork, lack of appreciation of Center problems by CETA representatives, and general disorganization. These seem to be common complaints among educational organizations that deal with CETA prime sponsors.

In Somerset County, SCETA originally wanted the County Vocational-Technical Schools to run special classes for its clients. This has been done, but the AVTS staff was dissatisfied. According the AVTS Personnel, not only was it difficult administratively, but it is more educationally and psychologically sound to integrate CETA clients with regular students in classes. SCETA has reported that monitoring of the secretarial training provided through individual referrals to the AVTS "has disclosed that attendance and progress of participants has greatly improved over the SCETA operated classes. The Vo-tech course is for two semesters the cost of which is one half the cost of a SCETA run program. SCETA will continue to mainstream enrollees on an individual referral basis with the Somerset County Technical Institute[1] as the training agency."[2] Most of SCETA's classroom training is now done at SCTI, and clients may be referred to courses in Air Conditioning, Refrigeration and Heating, Construction, Diesel, Mechanical Design, Welding, and Business/Secretarial.[3]

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[1] Middlesex County Employment and Training Services Inventory (New Brunswick: Middlesex County Comprehensive Employment and Training Administration Planning Department, 1977).

[2] There is an area or county vocational-technical school system (AVTS) and a county or community college in most counties in New Jersey. They operate under the authority of their county governments.

Middlesex County CETA contracted with the County Vo-tech Schools to run two training programs for CETA clients during FY 1978—Air Conditioning and Refrigeration and Clerk-Typist.[4] In addition, a few enrollees were sent to the AVTS by individual referral, including several to the LPN program.

In Burlington County, on the other hand, the prime sponsor has made every attempt to get CETA clients into the Vo-tech School. However, the AVTS in that county already has more high school students than it can handle during the day, and the prime sponsor is interested only in daytime programs. According to CETA personnel, the possibility of placing clients in programs sponsored by the AVTS "is no longer discussed."

Community colleges are also sometimes granted contracts for CETA training programs. Burlington County College has been a major delivery agent since the inception of CETA in Burlington County, partly because of its close proximity to the CETA office. It has been refunded for over a quarter of a million dollars for FY 1978 because of its demonstrated effectiveness, and is expected to serve about 500 CETA clients in Office Skills Training, Basic Education, and Cooperative Education. Middlesex County CETA awarded a grant to its county college for individualized Basic Education and High School Equivalency Preparation, as well as funding for five skills training programs—Accounts Clerk, Computer Operator, Distribution Clerk, Machine Operator, and Secretarial.[5] In both Burlington and Middlesex Counties, the community colleges play a larger role in CETA training than do the area vocational and technical schools, although clients are generally not referred to existing degree or certificate programs run by the colleges. In both counties, the AVTSs are well-established and respected institutions which have no need to seek out new clienteles.

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[1] Somerset County Technical Institute is the postsecondary component of Somerset County Vocational-Technical Schools.

[2] SCETA, CETA Title I Plan FY '78, p. 49.

[3] Ibid., p. 29.

[4] Middlesex County Inventory, pp. 44, 51.

[5] Middlesex County Inventory, pp. 43, 48, 52, 55, 58.

Although the Burlington AVTS was established in the 60's, it is filled to capacity and has just completed its second building. Middlesex AVTS was the first AVTS in the United States, and has just opened its fifth building. Both counties have industries that require large numbers of skilled workers. Middlesex County College has been particularly aggressive in seeking grant money from various sources, and serving all segments of the population is an integral part of its philosophy. The colleges also seem more flexible in their ability to set up programs at the time of day and in the manner CETA prefers; further, they are not hampered by teacher certification and curriculum requirements that the AVTSs must adhere to.

In Somerset and Mercer Counties, however, the AVTSs provide most of the CETA training. The colleges in these two affluent counties seem to be serving a more advantaged population. Somerset County College has primarily transfer-oriented programs and many of its career-oriented programs are now offered jointly with the AVTS, which provides the technical training. Thus, the college has few facilities and faculty for occupational training. Also, since the Somerset County Technical Institute is relatively young (it was instituted only a few years before the college) and is still seeking to grow—in a county where the need for white-collar workers is greater than the need for skilled workers—it is likely more interested in adding CETA students to its rolls than are the AVTSs in Middlesex and Burlington Counties. In Mercer County, the AVTS took over the operation of the old Manpower Skills Center, which fulfills most of the training needs for both the Mercer County and the Trenton prime sponsors and the college has been uninterested in getting involved with CETA. Thus, the Somerset and Mercer County Colleges play only an occasional role in CETA skills training. SCETA contracted with Somerset County College to conduct a comprehensive training facilities survey,[1] and there was at least one individual referral to SCC's Data Processing Program last year.[2] Mercer County College has not been involved in training adult CETA clients, but is now training youths in mechanics and landscaping under the new YEDPA program. According to a CETA official, the college was chosen by the prime sponsor to do this training because "it has the facilities and faculty for the programs offered."

In general, the adult schools are less involved with CETA than either the AVTSs or the county colleges. However, there are a few larger adult schools with daytime programs which have subcontracted with CETA. The Perth Amboy Adult Skills Center in Middlesex County has been aggressive in seeking CETA funds. It has operated training programs for clerk-typists, food service workers, and renal dialysis technicians.[3] Further, it competed with Middlesex County College for a basic education and GED training grant, which however, was finally awarded to the college. The Bound Brook/

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[1] SCETA, CETA Title I Plan FY '78, p. 53.

[2] SCETA, CETA Title I FY '78 Plan Modification, p. 13.

[3] Middlesex County Inventory, pp. 49, 53, 57.

South Bound Brook/Hillsborough Adult School provides English as a Second Language training for CETA clients in Somerset County on an individual referral basis,[1] and has more recently been funded through CETA to run an adult high school, in which students may receive credit for life experience. Mercer County and Trenton prime sponsors, likewise, make individual referrals to the Trenton Adult Learning Center Adult Basic Education and High School Equivalency Programs. Officials of Burlington County CETA, after reviewing adult school brochures and speaking with the Chairman of the County Adult and Continuing Education Advisory Council (who is also a vocational educator), decided that the adult schools in Burlington County were not suited to training CETA clients, who need intensive skill training. Besides, public transportation in the county is poor, and adult schools would not be accessible to clients by this means.

Most of the prime sponsors make some individual referrals to private trade schools, particularly when enrollments do not warrant setting up a CETA course or when training in an area is not available through a publicly-funded educational institution. This is done most frequently in Burlington County, where the adult schools and the AVTS are not able to provide training, and where the county college can provide training only to a limited degree. Burlington County CETA's plan indicates that 90 persons would be trained in Auto Mechanics, Tractor Trailor, Air Conditioning, Welding, Legal Secretary, Electronic Service, and Digital Computer through individual placements at Lincoln Technical Institute, Lyons Institute of Technology, Pennco Technical Institute, Welder Training Testing Institute, Health Careers Academy, Harris School of Business, and American Training Service.[2] The Somerset, Mercer, and Middlesex prime sponsors make only occasional individual placements in private trade schools.[3] Some prime sponsors have also contracted with private schools to set up training courses especially for CETA. Burlington County has subcontracted with Associated Business Careers for a clerk-typist course because of its proximity to special target groups lacking public transportation.[4] Harris School of Business runs a secretarial course and Health Careers Academy operates dental and medical assistant courses under subcontracts with Burlington County CETA.[5] Middlesex County CETA also has several subcontracts with private schools, including Associated Business Careers for accounting clerk and bookkeeper courses, Delahanty Institute for auto mechanics and welding, and Automotive Career Institute for automotive service writer and parts inventory clerk.[6]

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[1] SCETA, CETA Title 1 Plan FY '78, p. 50.

[2] Burlington ETA, CETA Title I Annual Plan 1978, PP. 35-36.

[3] SCETA, CETA Title I Plan FY '78, P. 50.

[4] Burlington County ETA, CETA Title I Annual Plan 1978, p. 67.

[5] Ibid., p. 68.

[6] Middlesex County Inventory, pp. 42, 45, 46, 47, 56.

In addition to the area vo-tech schools, the community colleges, adult schools, and private trade schools with which prime sponsors subcontract, one other education agency, the New Jersey Job Corps Center in Edison, is used by some prime sponsors. The residential program, which operates under a CETA Title IV grant to the New Jersey State Department of Education, accepts referrals from prime sponsors for training in residence at not cost to prime sponsor agencies.[1] In addition, both Middlesex and Somerset prime sponsors refer clients to the Job Corps Center for nonresidential training. Somerset was offered ten training slots from a range of 25 occupational fields.[2] Middlesex has subcontracted with the Job Corps Center to run a Clerk-Typist training program for MCCETA clients.[3]

One of the reasons for CETA's extensive use of educational agencies for training is the allocation of five percent of a state's Title I funds to its State Department of Education. In New Jersey, prime sponsors subcontract with local education agencies (LEAs) through nonfinancial agreements, while financial agreements for these services are made between the New Jersey Department of Education and the LEA. Individual referrals to public and private vocational schools are also paid for through the State by these funds. The State Department of Education has been active in encouraging collaboration between LEAs and CETA, although there has been some resistance at the local level. Differences in the philosophies of vocational educators and CETA people, as well as lack of understanding of each others' organizations, objectives, programs, terminologies (jargon), and reporting requirements have been reported by interviewees as barriers to cooperation between education and CETA. Both are complex bureaucracies—education with its established traditions and procedures and CETA with its raft of new and frequently changing rules and regulations. A CETA employee commented that it is difficult to know whom to approach in a school to establish an effective linkage. If one contacts the superintendent or the high school principal, the teachers and counselors in the school system may never learn of the school's involvement with CETA unless they are directly involved. A principal in attendance at a joint conference of CETA and education representatives stated that he had learned at the conference that there was a CETA youth program in his school that he had not even known about. Thus, the problems of communication both within and between the two bureaucracies is a barrier to effective linkage. One educator-participant at a CETA conference expressed the feeling that the schools have built walls around themselves. The students and teachers are locked inside for the entire school day, and people from outside, such as CETA representatives, cannot get in. He said that public schools lack the ability to establish effective linkages because, unlike the community colleges, no one person has the flexibility to get out and find out what is happening. What we need, he said, are PR people or grantspeople who have the ability to do this in an informal manner. We need more than just formal contracts.

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[1] SCETA, *CETA Title I Plan FY '78*, p. 31.

[2] Ibid., p. 28.

[3] *Middlesex County Inventory*, p. 50.

Many educators also report resentment at having their programs monitored by non-educators. The paperwork involved in reporting on educational matters, as well as on fiscal and enrollment data, is often overwhelming. Educators want to have control over their own operations, and they have made some inroads in establishing their rights to regulate student attendance and behavior, and to have a voice in determining criteria for accepting CETA clients as students in their programs, particularly when their programs are evaluated by CETA on the basis of the number of students who are successful in completing their programs and being placed in unsubsidized jobs. The Mercer County Adult Vocational Technical Center, was able to obtain some say about who was admitted to the Center, and was able to "force" the two prime sponsors it serves to agree on a uniform course length. Through weekly meetings with CETA representatives regarding assessment and assignment of students, the AVTC was able to exert its influence on prime sponsor policy. The new Center principal was able to impose rigid attendance requirements on enrollees, and students—even CETA students—who do not attend regularly are dropped from the program by the Center.[1] An Adult Learning Center in another area of the state, according to its Director, refused to accept students from CETA unless they could read at a ninth grade level on a Center-administered test because CETA required them to have a high percentage of students complete their GED program successfully within one year. Officials of the Somerset County Vo-tech Schools were able to convince SCETA to place clients in their existing classes rather than run a separate course for them and SCETA found that not only did more students complete the courses, but it was more cost efficient.[2]

Thus, although there are many barriers to cooperation between education and CETA, there are also a number of facilitators, not the least of which is federal legislation and the rules and regulations that accompany it. As a result, federal and state agencies actively work to encourage collaboration, and although there is still some resistance on both fronts, particularly at the local level, significant progress appears to have been made toward a cooperative effort.

Linkages with Other Agencies

The prime sponsors from whom data were collected in this study made limited use of non-education organizations for classroom training programs. Community-based organizations (CBOs), Community Action Agencies (CAAs), and other organizations were more often employed for work experience, on-the-job training, job orientation, job readiness, counseling for special groups, and other supportive services. Some examples are

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[1] Adult Vocational Technical Center: Summary Annual Report, 1976-1977, to the Superintendent of Mercer County Area Vocational Technical Schools, pp. 22-23.

[2] SCETA, CETA Title I Plan FY '78, p. 49.

Morrow Projects, which provides job readiness training and job search skills for ex-offenders under a grant form Middlesex County CETA;[1] the Community Action Council, which operates a work experience program under a subcontract with Mercer County CETA to provide enrollees with positive, consistent work habits along with short term employment;[2] Central New Jersey Opportunities Industrialization Center, which provides job orientation through a week of half-day exploration of the world of work, including exposure to equipment used on various kinds of jobs and sometimes visits to local work sites, for the Somerset County CETA;[3] National Training Services and the National Alliance of Businessmen, which arrange for OJT slots in private business and industry for Middlesex County CETA;[4] and Mobilization of Resources (MOR) and Somerset County Action Program (SCAP), which jointly provide day care for SCETA participants.[5]

One CBO that provides a major portion of CETA training is the Opportunities Industrialization Center (OIC) in Burlington County, which received the largest portion of Burlington training grant money in FY 1978—over $300,000. It conducted skills training programs in Clerical Occupations, Bank Teller, Bookkeeper, Home and Building Trades, Welding, Auto Mechanics, and Keypunch. OIC has been a major delivery agent since the inception of CETA in Burlington County.[6] The Central New Jersey OIC also provides High School Equivalency and Clerical Skills training on an individual referral basis in Somerset County.[7]

There seems to be a trend toward utilization of traditional institutions by CETA, and away from subcontracting with CBOs and CAAs. Somerset County ETA, as mentioned above, found it necessary to cut off funds to both SCAP, which provided training and other services for SCETA, and Somerset County Chaplaincy Council, a CBO which provided intensive counseling to ex-offenders. As explained earlier, SCETA has also found that the vo-tech school's training program was more cost-effective and the client drop-out rate was lower than programs run by other agencies. SCETA has thus decided to continue individual referrals to the vo-tech school (SCTI) rather than set up classes especially for CETA participants. The Trenton prime sponsor discontinued its grant to OIC for client assessment, placement, and job counseling and placement in early 1977, and itself assumed the responsibility for these functions, thus allowing the Adult Vo-tech Center more input in these areas.[1] In 1978, the contract of Minorities United to Save Themselves (MUST), which provided work experience for Middlesex County CETA, was terminated due to operational and fiscal irregularities.[2] Although the role of the Employment Service (ES) was curtailed during the early days of CETA because of its perceived bureaucracy and lack of effectiveness in dealing with the disadvantaged,[3] New Jersey prime sponsors are increasingly turning to ES for counseling, assessment, and placement services. The 1977 report of the New Jersey Manpower Services Council states, "It (1977) was a year in which the previously defined role of CETA as a training agency and the Employment Service as a placement agency became a reality. A cooperative relationship between ES and CETA continued to grow leading to several innovative approaches."[4] The report indicates that only two prime sponsors in New Jersey did not contract with ES for services during 1977. Twelve prime sponsors contracted with ES for development of OJT slots, ten for job placement, eight for referrals to training, seven for testing, four for counseling, two for enrollments, and one for intake services. Of the five prime sponsors studied in this research, Somerset and Mercer subcontracted with ES for referrals to training, Trenton for job placements, Middlesex for testing, and Burlington for testing, counseling, enrollments, and development of OJT slots.[5] Mercer County has four intake sites located in various parts of the county, and ES counselors are on site to share the intake function. Clients are referred to ES by CETA and by CETA to ES in this cooperative arrangement. Although Somerset County CETA refers all employables to ES for direct employment, it has developed its own back-up system of counseling for "those who have given up on the N.J. Employment Service but are still willing to try."[6] Thus, although there is cooperation between CETA and ES, there is a recognition of ES's limited effectiveness in dealing with some clients. It has been observed that the Employment Service is generally most effective in dealing with the job-ready, while the unskilled and inexperienced are better served by CETA.[7]

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[1] Middlesex County Inventory, p. 19.

[2] Community Action Council Work Experience Narrative, mimeographed paper provided by Mercer County CETA.

[3] SCETA, CETA Title I Plan FY '78, pp. 38-39.

[4] Middlesex County Inventory, pp. 24, 26.

[5] SCETA, CETA Title I Plan FY '78, p. 51.

[6] Burlington County ETA, CETA Title I Annual Plan 1978, p. 67.

[7] SCETA, CETA Title I Plan FY '78.

Prime sponsors purport to have linkages with a number of other agencies, but little or no data on the nature of these relationships were included in the interviews and documents obtained from them. It is assumed that most of these linkages are of a referral or communications nature.

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[1] Adult Vocational Technical Center: Summary Annual Report, 1976-1977, pp. 22-23.

[2] "MUST trainees tell of Kickbacks." The Courier-News (New Jersey), 1978.

[3] Mirengoff and Rindler, pp. 103-104.

[4] NJSMSC 1977 Report, p. 103.

[5] Ibid, p. 104.

[6] SCETA, CETA Title I Plan FY '78, p. 38.

[7] Mirengoff and Rindler, p. 107.

Such linkages include the following national, federal and state agencies and organizations or their regional (local) offices: WIN (Work Incentive) Program and Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, both U.S. Department of Labor programs; N.J. Division of Vocational and Rehabilitation Services; N.J. Division of Youth and Family Services; N.J. Educational Consortium; N.J. Office of Customized Training; Urban League; Veteran's Administration; Association for the Advancement of the Mentally Handicapped; National Association for Retarded Citizens; Puerto Rican Congress of New Jersey; Puerto Rican Association for Human Development; N.J. Commission for the Blind; Title XX Coalition; and Economic Development Council. Individual prime sponsors have linkages with local organizations such as Rutgers Community Health Center, Rutgers Labor Education Center, Catholic Welfare Bureau, County Office of Aging, County Welfare Office, County Probation Office, youth organizations, women's centers, YWCA's, community guidance centers, and drug rehabilitation centers.[1]

Conclusion

In summary, CETA is a new and complex bureaucratic organization created by the 1973 federal legislation, Comprehensive Employment and Training Act. It is based on the philosophy that local officials should determine the priorities for employment and training programs in their own jurisdictions and coordinate the efforts of community agencies. It addresses two societal needs—structural unemployment and cyclical unemployment—through programs which provide training for the unskilled or who lack work experience and programs which develop jobs for trained workers who have been laid off due to economic factors. Ultimately, the goal of CETA is to place clients in unsubsidized jobs as quickly as possible.

The CETA legislation has had a number of additions since 1973, introducing new programs and billions of dollars of new funding to prime sponsors' budgets. This, coupled with the mass of CETA rules and regulations that are constantly changing, has put local CETA operations in a state of flux and confusion. Lack of preparation of local governments and their employees to take on the new roles of initiating and operating comprehensive employment and training programs has contributed to the difficulties that prime sponsors have experienced in establishing the programs prescribed by the changing CETA legislation. And not only do those responsible for CETA find the legislation and its accompanying rules and regulations stumbling blocks, but there is widespread lack of understanding of CETA on the part of educators and staffs of other agencies associated with employment and training activities.

Training remains an essential component of CETA. Virtually all training provided by prime sponsors is funded under Title I, which comprised about one-third of the total CETA budget in 1978. While prime sponsors may set up their own training programs, the legislation encourages use of existing programs and facilities. Most training is done through education agencies—including Area Vocational-Technical Schools (AVTSs), community colleges, private trade schools, and public adult schools—since these are the organizations that are most likely to have the facilities and trained personnel to teach needed courses in job skills and related academic education. The five percent allocation of Title I funds to State Education Departments has also encouraged involvement of education agencies in providing CETA training and program planning. Some Community Based Organizations (CBOs) and Community Action Agencies (CAAs) have been involved in training, but these organizations are more likely to provide supportive services or work experience than classroom skills training. Business and industry is involved principally in on-the-job training (OJT), while public employers are most likely to be linked with CETA through Public Service Employment (PSE) programs.

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[1] Middlesex County Inventory; SCETA, CETA Title I Plan FY '78, pp. 53-54; Burlington County ETA, CETA Title I Annual Plan 1978, pp. 70-73; Mercer County, "Linkages"; NJSMSC 1977 Report.

Which educational or other agencies will be the primary providers for a given prime sponsor is dependent on a number of factors. Space and facilities are major requirements. AVTSs are most likely to have the most extensive equipment for jobs in which CETA clients seek training, although adult schools, community colleges, private trade and secretarial schools, and other agencies may have certain kinds of equipment for training in these jobs. Some schools, although they have facilities, are filled to capacity with their regular students, at least during the day, the time when prime sponsors are most likely to want to offer training for their clients.

The major types of employers and the kinds of workers they need is another factor that influences to which agencies prime sponsors send their clients for training, depending upon which ones can best train workers for available jobs. Another factor is the types of clients a prime sponsor has—mature women, youths, minorities, non-English speaking, handicapped, unskilled, laid off but trained and experienced workers, and so on. Certain organizations, including CBOs and CAAs may best serve clients with special needs like English as a second language, remedial education, and job readiness skills because of their understanding of the clients' needs. The rate of unemployment in an area influences the need for various types of CETA training programs—OJT, work experience, classroom training—and thus the prime sponsor's choice of delivery agents.

Population density of a prime sponsor's area, the availability of public transportation, and the location of population centers also influence prime sponsors' choices in selecting agencies to train their clients. A school or other organization might be employed because of its proximity to public transportation, a minority community, or the CETA office.

Characteristics of the individual providers—or potential providers—of training for CETA are important determining factors. An agency's philosophy with regard to serving the total community or certain populations of unskilled and/or inexperienced workers, its aggressiveness in seeking outside funding, its purpose and clientele in general, its need or desire to increase its student population, its ability and willingness to be flexible in tailoring its services to the special needs and goals of CETA, its influence on government officials, CETA staff, and the prime sponsor's planning council, its representation on the CETA planning council—all of these, in addition to its capacity for providing training, are factors which determine an individual organization's degree of involvement with CETA. Another characteristic that is particularly applicable to AVTSs, is the agency's status in the community with regard to vocational training, which is related to the preponderance of blue-collar or technical jobs in the area, the number of in-school youths who seek skill training, the degree of competition in being accepted as a student in the school, and how much space for CETA a school has available after serving its regular clientele.

The history of the development of skills training in a prime sponsor's area has a bearing on which agencies will be the major providers of CETA training. Influencial factors include: which agency was the first to offer programs in each skill area; whether a skills center established under MDTA is still in operation and which agency now operates it, the competition provided by the various training organizations in the area, the ability of local CBOs and CAAs to provide training, the existence of area daytime adult schools with facilities for training, the availability of AVTS facilities during the day, the interest of the county community college in serving this clientele, the presence of private trade schools that can offer training for CETA, the quality of training provided by each agency, the ability of education agencies to influence the practices of CETA, the aggressiveness of each of the agencies in seeking CETA funds, the status of the county-funded agencies—AVTSs and community colleges in New Jersey—in the prime sponsor's county and their levels of funding and prestige in the eyes of the public and of the county governing body, and the number of potential providers of CETA training available in the area in general.

The quality of the CETA operation itself influences which agencies will become providers of CETA training. Among the indicators of such quality or lack of quality are the following: whether decisions are made politically rather than on the basis of a subcontracting organization's ability to provide effective training, the influence of local government officials in CETA hiring and subcontracting, the degree to which CETA planning council members seek to fund their own agencies rather than those that submit the most meritorious and cost-efficient proposals, the degree to which competent CETA administrators and staff have been hired, the competence of the CETA staff in reviewing and supervising funded programs and its own activities, and the willingness of CETA staff to learn from the experience of educators and other professionals involved in employment and training and to consider the merits of their recommendations.

Finally, the effectiveness and efficiency of the interactions and cooperative agreements between the two major bureaucracies involved with employment and training—Labor and Education—is largely determined by how well the respective staffs understand each other. The philosophy of the Department of Labor, and CETA in particular, with regard to job preparation and placement differs markedly from that of educators. The objectives, the program activities, the terminologies, the reporting systems, the power bases, the clienteles, the problems, while similar in some respects, are at least somewhat different in most. If there is to be effective cooperation between Education and CETA, it is crucial that efforts be made on both sides to understand the various aspects of each other's planning and programming.

Summary

In summary, CETA is a new and complex bureaucratic organization created by the 1973 federal Comprehensive Employment and Training Act. It is based on the philosophy that local officials should determine the prioritites for employment and training programs in their own jurisdictions and coordinate the efforts of community agencies. It addresses two societal needs—structural unemployment and cyclical unemployment—through programs which provide training for the unskilled or who lack work experience and programs which develop jobs for trained workers who have been laid off due to economic factors. Ultimately, the goal of CETA is to place clients in unsubsidized jobs as quickly as possible.

The CETA legislation has had a number of additions since 1973, introducing new programs and billions of dollars of new funding to prime sponsors' budgets. This, coupled with the mass of CETA rules and regulations that are constantly changing, has put local CETA operations in a state of flux and confusion. Lack of preparation of local governments and their employees to take on the new roles of initiating and operating comprehensive employment and training programs has contributed to the difficulties that prime sponsors have experienced in establishing the programs prescribed by the changing CETA legislation. And not only do those responsible for CETA find the legislation and its accompanying rules and regulations stumbling blocks, but there is widespread lack of understanding of CETA on the part of educators and staffs of other agencies associated with employment and training activities.

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The major types of employers and the kinds of workers they need is another factor that influences to which agencies prime sponsors send their clients for training, depending upon which ones can best train workers for available jobs. Another factor is the types of clients a prime sponsor has—mature women, youths, minorities, non-English speaking, handicapped, unskilled, laid off but trained and experienced workers, and so on. Certain organizations, including CBOs and CAAs may best serve clients with special needs like English as a second language, remedial education, and job readiness skills because of their understanding of the clients' needs. The rate of unemployment in an area influences the need for various types of CETA training programs—OJT, work experience, classroom training—and thus the prime sponsor's choice of delivery agents.

Population density of prime sponsor's area, the availability of public transportation, and the location of population centers also influence prime sponsors' choices in selecting agencies to train their clients. A school or other organization might be employed because of its proximity to public transportation, a minority community, or the CETA office.

Characteristics of the individual providers—or potential providers—of training for CETA are important determining factors. An agency's philosophy with regard to serving the total community or certain populations of unskilled and/or inexperienced workers, its aggressiveness in seeking outside funding, its purpose and clientele in general, its need or desire to increase its student population, its ability and willingness to be flexible in tailoring its services to the special needs and goals of CETA, its influence on government officials, CETA staff, and the prime sponsor's planning council, its representation on the CETA planning council—all of these, in addition to its capacity for providing training, are factors which determine an individual organization's degree of involvement with CETA. Another characteristic that is particularly applicable to AVTSs, is the agency's status in the community with regard to vocational training, which is related to the preponderance of blue-collar or technical jobs in the area, the number of in-school youths who seek skill training, the degree of competition in being accepted as a student in the school, and how much space for CETA a school has available after serving its regular clientele.

The history of the development of skills training in a prime sponsor's area has a bearing on which agencies will be the major providers of CETA training. Influential factors include: which agency was the first to offer programs in each skill area; whether a skills center established under MDTA is still in operation and which agency now operates it; the competition provided by the various training organizations in the area, the ability of local CBOs and CAAs to provide training, the experience of area daytime adult schools with facilities for training, the availability of AVTS facilities during the day, the interest of the county community college in serving this clientele, the presence of private trade schools that can offer training for CETA, the quality of training provided by each agency, the ability of education agencies to influence the practices of CETA, the aggressiveness of each of the agencies in seeking CETA funds, the status of the county-funded agencies—AVTSs and community colleges in New Jersey—in the prime sponsor's county and their levels of funding and prestige in the eyes of the public and of the county governing body, and the number of potential providers of CETA training available in the area in general.

The quality of the CETA operation itself influences which agencies will become providers of CETA training. Among the indicators of such quality are whether decisions are made politically rather than on the basis of a subcontracting organization's ability to provide effective training, the influence of local government officials in CETA hiring and subcontracting, the degree to which CETA planning council members seek to fund their own agencies rather than those that submit the most meritorious and cost-efficient proposals, the degree to which competent CETA administrators and staff have been hired, the competence of the CETA staff in reviewing and supervising funded programs and its own activities, and the willingness of CETA staff to learn from the experience of educators and other professionals involved in employment and training and to consider the merits of their recommendations.

Finally, the effectiveness and efficiency of the interactions and cooperative agreements between the two major bureaucracies involved with employment and training—Labor and Education—are largely determined by how well the respective staffs understand each other. The philosophy of the Department of Labor, and CETA in particular, with regard to job preparation and placement differs markedly from that of educators. The objectives, the program activities, the terminologies, the reporting systems, the power bases, the clienteles, the problems, while similar in some respects, are at least somewhat different in most. It is crucial that, if there is to be effective cooperation between Education and CETA, that efforts be made on both parts to understand the various aspects of each other's planning and programming.

Chapter 6

SUMMARY OF ECOLOGICAL STUDIES

As mentioned in the introduction to this section, an ecological perspective implies that each organization within a particular environment serves a specific role or function and that the interrelationships among organizations and between organizations and their environments are central to an understanding of the system. In the present case we are studying the educational systems of four New Jersey counties, our particular point of reference being adult occupational education. Accordingly, this chapter will be organized into two parts. The first part will deal with the role or function of each of the major providers of adult occupational education in New Jersey counties; the second part will focus on the interrelationship between these providers and their relationship to the total system.

The Functions of Providers

We have focused on three main providers of adult occupational education in New Jersey counties: community colleges, area vocational-technical schools, and adult schools. In addition we have studied CETA, for the potential impact of this organization on adult occupational education seemed to merit attention. Let us first examine community colleges.

Community Colleges

In respect to adult occupational education it is of critical importance to note that of all providers studied only community colleges are institutions of higher education. Although most community colleges previously focused on eighteen to twenty year olds, in recent years many have become reoriented towards serving adults to the extent that enrollments of adults aged 22 and over now constitute a majority of students in many New Jersey community colleges. As MacNeil points out in her chapter, community colleges have purposefully courted adults. This had been done by establishing special continuing education units as well as by "mainstreaming" adults into the regular college programs and offerings. MacNeil also finds that community colleges have placed greater emphasis on occupationally related programming in recent years. It is no wonder then that community colleges have become major providers of adult occupational education.

To be sure, AVTS programs serve adults and adult schools also serve adults, but for those providers which are attached to institutions oriented toward children and youth the adult education function is tangential to the parent institution rather than a primary function. This leads to the first point. For community colleges adult occupational education has become a major function which has been blended into nearly all aspects of college operation, while for adult schools and AVTSs adult education is separate and distinct from the major operations of the institution. This has meant that for community colleges, the total institution comes to bear on adult occupational education, a fact which places community colleges in an advantageous position with respect to other providers. Let us examine this point more closely.

As mentioned the adult occupational education function in community colleges is diffused throughout the institution. The major mission of the community college is to provide terminal degrees and transfer programs. Thus adults can and do enroll in regular degree programs such as computer programming. Since it is the only county level provider authorized to award degrees, community colleges corner the market on preparatory programs requiring degrees and have the incentive of a degree to offer in vying for students. Many adult students, however, seek continuing occupational education rather than preparatory education. For these students, there are non-credit courses and short term certificate programs. While the core academic and vocational units of community colleges serve the degree oriented, the unit responsible for continuing education generally provides for the non-degree adult student.

Although occupationally related degree programs draw many adults who want the certification and prestige a degree offers, academic policy regarding degree programs tends to be rather conservative. In other words, in order to institute a new degree program, faculty committees must become involved and state approval must be secured. It can take several years to institute a new degree program. Certificate programs, however, can be instituted rapidly with minimal institutional oversight, and non-credit courses can usually be established solely on the dean or director of continuing education's initiative. This structure provides for great scope and flexibility in adult vocational education. The community college provides programming in all time-interval categories—long term degree programs, shorter term certificate programs, and even shorter term non-degree courses. Certificate programs and non-degree courses can be established rapidly when there is a need and high learner demand. Then they can be terminated equally as rapidly when demand falters, since large capital investments in plant and equipment are not generally involved and since, given their shorter duration, there are not large numbers of students left hanging in "mid-program."

Domain is a term which we have consistently used to refer to the "ecological space" of an organization. Community colleges have very wide domains in regard to adult occupational education. Moreover they have the institutional flexibility to shift programming rapidly, thus expanding their domain into new areas. To a great extent their potential for domain expansion has been realized, fueled by two factors.

The first factor might be called the growth mentality of community colleges. Community colleges (especially in New Jersey) are relatively new institutions providing a service for which there has been high demand. The expectation on the part of society that they should expand has been largely self-fulfilling. Second it is important to note that the community oriented mission of community colleges has in most cases resulted in a considerable amount of system openness—a willingness to meet community needs, a receptivity to community input.

The community college's domain expansion is not without limits however. Generally speaking, the community college's higher education orientation has influenced domain. Community colleges tend to focus on sophisticated technology in their occupational programs, programs in computer technology and laboratory technology being examples. They tend to orient themselves towards white collar and supervisory workers rather than blue collar workers or line employees. Automotive repair programs in community colleges, for example, attempt to articulate towards service managers and parts department managers rather than towards mechanics. In degree programs, there is a tendency to require liberal education course work in addition to the occupationally related work and course work generally contains a conceptual-theoretical element less prevalent in the offerings of other providers. In comparison to AVTSs and adult schools there is a higher education flavor to community college offerings.

Most other providers of occupational education consider the community colleges' activities in this higher education area to be legitimate, but when the community college attempts to extend its activities into other areas, there is frequently an outcry sufficient to halt the expansion. MacNeil's account of community colleges' abortive attempt to expand into LPN training, a program traditionally within the county AVTS's purview, is a case in point. Similarly, for years the desire of New Jersey community colleges to move into adult literacy training (ABE, High School Completion) has been resisted by local adult schools which provide this education, though recent changes in the federal legislation funding ABE may enable expansion by community colleges into this area.

Regarding expansion it is also important to note that the growth mentality and system openness noted earlier are a matter of degree. Some community colleges, our rural college for example, are less oriented toward community service and are more oriented towards eighteen to twenty year old transfer students. Such institutions are likely to concentrate on degree programs and generally offer fewer programs in the adult vocational area.

There are two final points to be mentioned regarding the function of the community college in adult occupational education. First, unlike adult schools and AVTSs which primarily serve youth during daytime hours, community colleges schedule activities for adults during both day and evening. This enables them to serve adults who are free during the daytime and prefer to attend at these times. Unemployed adults and women whose children are at school during the day fit into this category. Secondly, and perhaps more important, community colleges are equipped to provide important supportive services to adult vocational students, services such as career counseling and job placement. In addition the full range of services open to adults allows vocational students to utilize the community college on an ongoing or repeat basis. For example, an adult might first engage by taking a non-credit course in keypunching. If satisfied, the same adult might return for a certificate program in the basics of computer operations and then go on for a degree program. Once graduated and employed, the same student might return for continuing education courses designed to upgrade students' capabilities in using new computer technology. Thus, from the student's perspective, the community college can serve as an ongoing resource for lifelong learning. Neither adult schools nor AVTSs are comprehensive enough to serve effectively in this fashion.

Area Vocational Technical Schools (AVTS)

As Flaherty notes in her chapter on vocational-technical schools, AVTSs are primarily secondary level institutions which grew rapidly in the 1960's and 1970's due in part to large allocations of state and federal funds. In some cases students attend the AVTS on a part-time basis while in other cases students attend only the AVTS which, in such cases, provides for general academic learning as well as vocational learning. Of the institutions we have studied here, AVTSs are the only providers which have a purely vocational mission.

Although programming for adults in AVTSs can be substantial, the primary focus is on preparatory education for youths of high school age. Typically education for adults is conducted in the evening by a special unit established for this purpose. While there is considerable commonality in the way in which community colleges and adult schools serve adults, within AVTSs there is more variety. One AVTS studied, for example, had established a formal postsecondary technical institute which operated in cooperation with the community college, while other AVTSs merely conduct a series of courses for adults in the evening.

There are several generalizations which seem to hold for adult programs in most AVTSs. First, in contrast to sixteen to eighteen year old students, adult students generally enroll for continuing education rather than for preparatory education. In other words, most adult students are already employed and are merely seeking to upgrade their skills rather than gain entry level skills. Flaherty notes that about 84 percent of adult AVTS students are engaged in continuing rather than preparatory training. Second, a major component of most AVTS adult programming appears to be apprenticeship training conducted in cooperation with businesses, industries or labor unions. The fact that certain apprenticeship training is required for job entry is a stimulus to this form of education. Finally, since the majority of adult students are employed, and since AVTS facilities are used for youth during the day, most adult vocational activities are conducted in the evening. There are exceptions, however; most AVTSs for example, do conduct daytime LPN programs that enroll many adults. AVTSs occasionally offer prevocational programs for adults such as adult basic education, and often offer general enrichment courses of a vocational bent. Automobile repair courses for the general car owner are an example. When numbers of enrollments are considered, however, avocational and general enrichment courses are of minor consequence in comparison to occupationally related vocational courses.

The area vocational school's "niche" within the adult vocational ecology is quite well defined. AVTS tend to concentrate on heavy technology found in the skilled trades and industry. Of eight categories of curriculum, "trade and industry education" constitutes over half the enrollments of adult AVTS students.[1] AVTSs also tend to focus on blue collar line employees rather than on white collar supervisors and managers, especially in counties where there are large concentrations of working class adults. Although AVTSs do play a certification role in apprenticeship programs and in such programs as LPN training, they do not offer degrees as such.

The fact that AVTSs concentrate on education for skilled trades and on technology means that in most cases large capital expenditures in plant and equipment must be made to establish programs. Equipping a "shop" is indeed expensive. Moreover, in order to establish a new program, elaborate planning is required by the State and County. The net result is reduction of flexibility in offering programs, since it frequently requires several years to institute a new diploma program. Termination of programs can also be difficult, for after spending large amounts of money to establish a program there is a reluctance to disband. Unlike community colleges and adult schools, teachers of adults in AVTSs must generally be state certified in their subject. Although this may promote quality, it also reduces flexibility in staffing. Given the expense and time envolved in establishing new programs, new programming is seldom instituted exclusively for adults. Rather, programs developed for secondary level students are typically extended to adults by utilizing in the evening the same plant and equipment used during the day.

Although the necessity of having expensive plant and equipment to conduct its programs restricts flexibility and requires that most adult offerings be conducted in the evening, there are also assets. For example, generally speaking the plant and equipment needed to conduct quality vocational-technical education is more current and of higher quality in AVTSs than in adult schools or even community colleges. Consequently, AVTSs frequently justify their programs by noting that they have the capability of providing a quality program while other providers do not. Possessing the best equipment in the county may also be an asset in recruiting adult students and in establishing apprenticeship relationships.

Adult Schools

While community colleges and AVTSs have counterparts in other states, the New Jersey Adult School is somewhat distinctive as an institution.

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[1] New Jersey State Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education Statistics.

The State of New Jersey provides up to two-thirds of the salary for an adult education director in school districts meeting certain size criteria. This has enabled the development of comprehensive adult education programs. In most such programs, the greatest number of enrollments are in fee financed offerings, and fee income supports operating costs. In addition, most adult schools conduct federal and state funded programs in adult basic education and high school completion. Adult schools are eligible for state aid in vocational education provided that their courses meet vocational criteria (job relatedness) and provided matching funds are allocated. Most adult school courses do not meet state criteria, however. Many adult school directors complain of the paper work involved in securing state vocational funds and of requirements to hire certified teachers for state funded classes. Consequently, courses directly related to job entry or job upgrading are in the minority, constituting between ten and twenty percent of the total according to Merriam.

In all cases, adult schools are units attached to public school districts which sponsor them, although there is generally much less of a correspondence between the day program in the school district and the adult school than between the day program in the AVTS and the AVTS adult vocational program. Adult schools operate with considerable autonomy from their school districts. Most adult school courses meet one or two nights a week for 10 to 12 week "semesters." The fees charged per course are just sufficient to cover overhead which is small in comparison to community college and AVTS overhead. Consequently, adult school fees are relatively low.

The adult school's role in adult vocational education has two dimensions. First, adult schools are major providers of prevocational training, training in basic skills which are prerequisite to occupationally related training. Nearly all adult schools, for example, offer adult basic education, a program focusing on basic reading, writing and computational skills. They also generally provide English language training for non-English speakers and high school completion programs of various sorts. The second dimension, though not a particularly important one for most adult schools, is education which is related directly to occupational skills. Examples are courses in typing, stenography, etc. Most of the adult school's vocational courses are short term in duration, essentially brush-up in orientation, and are in areas that do not require expensive and sophisticated equipment.

The greatest emphasis in adult schools is placed on general enrichment programming. This includes do-it-yourself type courses such as home carpentry, leisure courses such as tennis, and liberal adult education courses such as foreign languages and music appreciation. Frequently, this orientation causes a blurring of the vocational function. For example, in a typing course labeled as vocational we might find a secretary who has retired to motherhood and now wants to brush up in order to regain employment; sitting next to her might be a college student who wants to learn how to type his or her term papers. Art courses may include prospective commercial artists as well as weekend dabblers.

As Merriam notes, adults interested in vocational education attend adult schools rather than community colleges or AVTS for four reasons. The first reason is proximity. Since adult schools are organized on a school district basis, they are easier to get to in most cases. Yet just as adult schools are geographically closer to most adults, they may also be psychologically closer to adults who have become familiar with the public schools through the activities of their school age children. The second reason is cost in terms of time and dollars. Whereas community colleges and AVTSs generally offer series of related courses leading to certificates, diplomas or degrees, most adult school courses are "one shot" affairs lasting ten weeks and requiring two to four hours per week. To take an adult school course generally requires considerably less time than to take part in a community college or AVTS program. Tuition in adult school courses is minimal, generally in the 15 to 25 dollar range per course. The third reason for choosing an adult school course over the offerings of other providers is that adult schools require no "academic extras." For example, in contrast to community college degree programs, there are no required liberal arts courses. There is neither homework nor grading in adult schools. Attendance is completely voluntary in adult schools, and there is little stigma attached to withdrawing. All this contributes to the fourth reason for attending adult school courses, lack of pressure. Since there is no student evaluation, adult schools are failure free institutions and students who want to learn something without the pressure of having to conform to institutional standards may do so.

CETA

In New Jersey the services of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act are primarily delivered through a county prime sponsor system, although cities over 100,000 in population also serve as prime sponsors. In the first half of FY 1978 alone, CETA spent over one hundred and forty-seven million dollars in New Jersey. During this same period, in two of the counties studied here CETA expended 2.1 million dollars, in another county studied CETA spent 5.4 million dollars, and in still another county CETA expended 12.2 million dollars. Given this level of funding, CETA's potential impact on adult vocational education is considerable.

Although CETA is technically authorized to conduct its own training activites for adults, most county prime sponsors have chosen to subcontract for training. Given its funding level and mission, we might expect CETA to play the role of financer, initiator, and facilitator in adult vocational education. We might expect the institutions which provide adult education to court CETA as a means of establishing new programs and extending efforts towards students not previously reached. Although it is true that CETA has funded programs in community colleges, adult schools and AVTSs, it also appears to be the case that CETA's "enabling" role is minor compared to what it might be. As a rule, the established providers of adult vocational education have not courted CETA to a substantial degree. It seems reasonable to assert that CETA's impact on the adult vocational education system has not achieved its potential.

One set of reasons for this situation derives from the way CETA is administered and organized. CETA is a Department of Labor Program accountable to the Board of Chosen Freeholders, New Jersey's county government legislative branch. As a Department of Labor Program, CETA was never well integrated into the county educational establishment. CETA grew very quickly, so quickly that a sound and efficient organization had no time to develop. Since federal rules change very frequently, it has been difficult to establish viable operating procedures. Staff morale has been generally low and staff turnover high. Thus a stability of interpersonal relationships between CETA staff and providers of adult vocational education has been rare. Frequent changes in federal rules and staff turnover has also meant that CETA policy changes rapidly, so rapidly that just as a subcontractor adapts to CETA's requirements, the requirements change causing ongoing turmoil in subcontractor's operations.

It also seems as if CETA has a different operating style from the providers of adult vocational education discussed here. For example, CETA requires detailed record keeping and a great deal of paper work from its subcontractors, and community colleges, AVTSs and adult schools find this onerous and alien to their standard way of doing things. Since its clients are unemployed, CETA prefers that training take place during the day. This, however, causes problems for AVTS adult programs and adult schools which generally do not have access to facilities during the day. Finally, many providers of adult vocational education complain that CETA support is unstable, there being a history of terminating subcontracted programs quickly without adequate warning. Differences in operating styles tend to produce communication barriers between CETA and providers of occupational education, the result being frequent misunderstandings and occasional hostility.

In summation, there are few providers of adult vocational education which find it easy to work with CETA, yet the reverse also seems to be true; CETA finds it difficult to work with most providers. CETA frequently claims that many providers lack either the flexibility or willingness to program according to manpower needs and requirements. Furthermore, CETA often complains that adult schools, community colleges and AVTSs resist being held accountable for their success in placing CETA subcontracted trainees in jobs.

As a result, the relationship between CETA and the providers of adult vocational education studied here seems to be sporadic and piecemeal. Occasionally a provider does manage to establish a sound working relationship with CETA, and in such cases the relationship is generally mutually advantageous. Yet there does not seem to be a coordinated, well planned system for manpower training in New Jersey counties with CETA, community colleges and AVTSs working together in close cooperation.

Relationships Among Providers

In discussing the relationships among providers of adult vocational education and the relationship between providers and the environment we shall frequently refer to the term "domain." An organization's domain is the set of activities which it is legitimately empowered to conduct. There are at least two types of domain: potential domain, defined as all the activities an organization could legitimately engage in if it chose to, and actual domain, or the set of activities in which an organization actually does engage. Domain can be conceived as the ecological space of an organization—the niche the organization occupies within the environment as a whole.

In New Jersey counties the domains of adult vocational education providers are rather well defined. The community college has the widest domain, being empowered to offer virtually anything it chooses short of a four year college degree. Given this very wide domain, the potential for a type of competition popularly known as a "turf fight" would appear to be strong between community colleges and other providers. Community colleges can, and sometimes do, offer adult basic education, short-term enrichment courses, and non-credit vocational courses placing them in direct competition with adult schools. Similarly, community colleges can, and sometimes do, offer technology oriented career programs which place them in competition with AVTSs. Yet domain conflict produced by turf competition has not been great between community colleges and other providers. Part of the reason is that community colleges, adult schools and AVTSs focus on different types of clients. Community colleges tend to focus on postsecondary level students who desire course work with some rigor; adult schools focus on students who want inexpensive, easy access course work in a non-threatening atmosphere, and the AVTS focuses on the working person. Thus, the domains of the various providers have developed a fairly clear definition based on the needs and interests of the clients served.

There are, however, several areas of programming where clear domain definition has not been achieved, short-term non-credit programming, for example, which is the mainstay of adult schools. Community colleges and AVTSs are entering this area more and more. Another area of potential conflict exists between community colleges and AVTSs in the area of sophisticated technology. Even in these areas, however, severe domain conflicts have been rare, the most significant reason for lack of conflict being that adult occupational education has experienced rapid growth and to date there have been sufficient students for most providers regardless of whether similar programs are offered.

In some areas, cooperative arrangements have prevented domain conflict. For example, community colleges frequently offer credit courses in adult schools. This enables the community college to gain more widespread geographic coverage while it permits adult schools to capitalize on the lure of credit bearing instruction. Several community colleges in New Jersey have also established joint programs with AVTSs. In such cases the AVTS gains access to college credit and the community college gains access to sophisticated equipment owned by the AVTS.

Achieving consensus regarding domain appears to be primarily an informal process. Although career coordinating councils and county adult education councils do provide forums for discussion among providers, and although various state and local administering bodies do occasionally encourage cooperation and intercommunication, their role in defining turf and preventing battles is not great. Rather, domain definition seems to develop naturally over time and an implicit understanding regarding turf follows.

Although direct competition and conflict caused by one provider's encroaching on the domain of another is relatively rare, there is another type of generalized conflict that appears to be more prevalent. This occurs between the community college and the AVTS, and is manifested in a general hostility between the two organizations. We would speculate that there are several reasons for this often-noted animosity. First, there are several areas of genuine domain conflict, but more importantly both providers are dependent on the same political body for funding and support. The political body is the county Board of Chosen Freeholders, and the conflict arises over jockeying for political advantage in hope that political support will translate into increased funding. Another source of hostility between the AVTS and community college may well be the status differential between institutions. As postsecondary institutions, community colleges possess and sometimes flaunt the more prestigious mantle of higher education. Occasionally this causes defensive reactions among AVTS personnel who feel they are being looked down upon.

There is another reason why open conflict among providers of adult occupational education is rare. Although each provider holds adult occupational education in common, in two of the three cases (AVTSs and adult schools), adult vocational education is a program tangential to the major youth oriented mission of the sponsoring institution. The sponsoring institutions each fulfill well defined roles which complement each other rather than conflict with each other. Despite occasional animosity, school districts, AVTSs and community colleges generally avoid outright conflict. As a result should adult school or AVTS adult units encounter the opportunity for a competitive struggle, they can not automatically count on the support of their sponsoring institutions in the battle that might ensue.

In conclusion, it appears that the relatively low degree of conflict which does exist between providers is sporadic and seldom aggressive or pernicious. This stands in marked contrast to competition in the private sector where each business is continually engaged in aggrandizing itself at the expense of its competitors. Among the institutions studied here, attempts to drive other providers from the adult vocational education market were rare.

Let us now turn to cooperation, the opposite of competition. Though we do find instances of cooperation they, too, are sporadic. It is axiomatic to state that for cooperation to be lasting and meaningful, both parties to the relationship must benefit. Moreover, the benefits derived must outweigh any costs incurred. A common benefit of cooperation is the acquisition of needed resources, and this benefit was the motive behind most of the cooperative relationships we identified. Community colleges cooperate with AVTSs, for example, to gain access to needed equipment and facilites, while AVTSs accept the relationship to gain associate degree options for their students. Similarly community colleges establish cooperative relationships with adult schools to gain access to geographically dispersed facilities, while adult schools gain prestige and some income from the relationship.

If the need for resources motivates cooperation, then we can expect resource abundance to reduce the incidence of cooperation. This seems to be the case here. Demand for adult occupational education has been high, and as a result securing sufficient numbers of clients has not been difficult. Moreover, public funding available for adult occupational education has increased dramatically in the last fifteen years. In short, relative affluence has reduced incentives for cooperative programming as well as other forms of cooperation.

Although cooperative programming may provide benefits, costs are generally incurred as well. When the costs outweigh the benefits, cooperation is avoided. To a large extent this explains lack of widespread involvement with CETA. Given the relative affluence of the providers, they do not need CETA funds in order to prosper. Working with CETA, however, does entail substantial costs, among them vastly increased paper work, infusions of clients who require special treatment, and modifying one's operation to meet CETA's scheduling requirements. Consequently, the standard providers of adult occupational education have generally not courted CETA.

The most common cost of cooperative programming is the time which must be spent establishing and maintaining the relationship. In programs under one's direct control, arrangements can be made by fiat, while in cooperative programs most arrangements must be negotiated. This takes time. In cooperative programs effort is expended on making initial contacts. This takes time. As at least one adult school director noted, the extra effort is frequently not worth the gain.

Another common cost is organizational dislocation and disruption. CETA, for example, prefers daytime programming, a requirement that would so disrupt the scheduling of many AVTS programs that cooperation with CETA becomes untenable.

A very common barrier to cooperation in education is lack of flexibility. Bureaucratic rules regarding approval of programs, dispersal of funds, insurance, tuition, course credit et cetera become insurmountable barriers. To some degree this may retard cooperation in the degree or diploma area, but in general adult occupational education is comparatively flexible.

A final note on cooperation before we move on. It has become common for county, state and federal agencies to mandate cooperation. For example, membership of the county college president, the county superintendent of schools and the AVTS superintendent is mandated on the County Career Coordinating Council which establishes county funding priorities for vocational education. Although such mandated cooperation may provide for communication that would not otherwise exist, our data suggest that genuine and lasting cooperative efforts seldom develop through mandate. As previously noted, sound cooperative relationships are built on the pragmatic foundation of net benefit to all parties concerned.

In conclusion, the relationships among providers of adult vocational education seem to be characterized by neither widespread cooperation nor overt competition. Rather the term that seems to best portray these relationships is indifference. By indifference we mean that although the various providers are well aware of each other, they tend to go their own separate ways in programming neither conflicting nor cooperating with each other in any substantial degree. When cooperative programming does occur, it is generally established to fulfill a special need or purpose that cannot be fulfilled by a single provider alone.

Thus far we have focused our discussion on relationships among providers of adult occupational education which are all publically funded institutions. Yet with few exceptions, the products of adult occupational education, trained adults, will be or already are employed by private sector business and industry. Consequently, it is important to examine the relationship between public and private sectors.

The relationships between public and private sectors seems to be related to the type of education offered. One type we have termed preparatory education. In such cases adults who are seeking new careers engage in education designed to instill skills requisite for a particular occupation. Preparatory education is typically degree or diploma oriented and tends to be quite similar to the vocational-technical education designed for fourteen to twenty year olds who have never worked before. In preparatory programs the relationship between public and private sector is primarily indirect. Typically such programs do have advisory councils of private sector representatives who advise on curriculum, and frequently private sector input is sought through formal needs assessment procedures. Most importantly, significant numbers of instructors in such programs are full time private sector employees who teach on an adjunct basis. Yet there is rarely a direct nexus between private and public sector in preparatory programs. By this we mean the following: In preparatory training, community colleges and AVTSs admit students from a pool of adults who are seeking career change. Most typically these adults are temporarily unemployed workers or are homemakers wishing to join the work force. Once educated, adults then enter another pool of unemployed persons seeking jobs. Job seekers then compete with each other for available positions. Some are sucessful; others are not. The point is that the processors of manpower, public sector providers of adult vocational education, are not automatically linked to the users of that output, private business and industry. There is no formal distribution system for output analogous to the relationships between a producer of goods and a wholesaler. It is not considered to be the role or responsibility of public sector preparatory training programs to establish formal outlets for its products, that is trained adults. Rather, the onus of gaining employment is purely on the adult graduate.

This lack of direct nexus may promote other problems. In most business and industrial distribution systems, vital feedback is returned to the producer through the distribution system. This feedback is then acted upon to improve products. For example, retailers and wholesalers are quick to pass back information on product success and product deficiencies to producers. The most common complaint of private sector employers has been that graduates of preparatory programs do not possess the skills and competencies relevant to their work situation. In other words, the product is deficient from their point of view. Perhaps a more direct nexus between public and private sector in the preparatory arena would serve to ameliorate this problem by establishing more effective feedback channels.

The picture is somewhat different in the second type of education, continuing occupational education. In this case adults who are already employed take part in education to upgrade skills and knowledge. In continuing education programs the nexus between private and public sectors tends to be much closer. A prime example is apprenticeship programs where the adult learns through a combination of on-the-job training and formal instruction. Apprenticeship programs have coordinators who work closely with business and labor and the interaction between experience learning and classroom learning promotes a high degree of job relevancy. Incidentally, in apprenticeship programs there is a direct correspondence between success in learning and success in earning, an interaction which can be a significant incentive to continue for the student.

There is a much greater tendancy toward cooperative programs in continuing occupational education than in preparatory education. Frequently, short courses are held on the employer's premises, and course offerings are often tailored to meet the special needs of employers. Part of the reason for this is the fact that most continuing vocational education takes place at the non-degree or diploma level. When degree or diploma programs are not involved, programmers have considerably more flexibility and latitude in designing special offerings to meet private sector needs.

Relationships with the Environment

The providers of adult vocational education operate within a larger environment. They are affected by that environment, and they in turn have an impact upon the environment. In discussing the environment, the first concept we shall deal with is affluence, or the relative amount of resources that exist in the environment.

Data from the four counties studied suggest that system affluence affects both competition and cooperation. When resources are lean within an environment or when providers must vie for scarce resources from the same source, competition and interorganizational conflict frequently result. The two resources of greatest impact are funds and clients. Funds are important because they are highly liquid and versatile, and can be used to secure other resources such as equipment and staff. Clients are important because they represent the raw material without which no work can be done. Futhermore, in fee financed programs, clients are in indirect source of funds. Competition and conflict frequently develop when funds and clients are in short supply, because providers most vie with each other for adequate supplies of these resources. As a case in point we see a certain degree of conflict between community colleges and AVTSs because both institutions must vie for the same scarce resources allocated by the county governments which fund these providers.

Generally speaking, however, the counties studied were rather affluent. No provider was suffering for lack of clients, and although funding was not as rich as it once had been funding levels were generally adequate in the adult occupational education arena. Consequently, there was a minimum of conflict and competition among providers. In those cases of faltering demand for particular programs and a corresponding loss of clients, providers were flexible enough to terminate the program and shift to a new area of activity where client demand for service was high. Similarly, if a source of funding were cut back or eliminated, in most cases an alternative sources of funds was within the provider's grasp.

Cooperation is a frequently employed strategy for dealing with resource inadequacies. If clients are needed, for example, a cosponsored program can often provide access to large pools of clients. If funds are in short supply, the services of providers can be "sold" to business and industry by developing and marketing especially tailored continuing education programs. Thus, though dire resource inadequacy will frequently produce destructive competition, mild resource inadequacy will frequently produce mild "friendly" competition along with a significant amount of cooperation. System affluence, however, seems to retard cooperation as well as competition, for cooperation requires an extra effort on the part of programmers, and if resources are readily available the expenditure of extra effort is not rational. System affluence, then, appears to be a contributing factor to the indifferent relationships we find among providers.

A second environmental characteristic pertains to the socio-economic configuration of the county. For example, as we have noted AVTS programs tend to concentrate on working class adults. In counties where there are large concentrations of heavy industry, where population growth creates a demand for skilled tradesmen, and where there is a large working class population, AVTS programs are quite strong. Although the statistics are a bit misleading, it is interesting to note that the adult AVTS enrollments in an industrialized, working class county we studied were more than double adult AVTS enrollments in an affluent, white collar county.

Population and organizational density are also important environmental characteristics. In a county where there are large concentrations of adults residing in close proximity, education can be, and usually is, conducted in sites close to the learners thus reducing the need for substantial travel. Large concentrations of learners also provide a larger "interest base." That is to say sufficient numbers of learners can be found to program a diversity of offerings, while in areas of low population density relatively few programs can be mounted. It is also important to note that reduction in the relative numbers of children and youth have produced enrollment declines in the traditional elementary, secondary and higher education areas. This has caused all educational institutions studied here to give more attention to adults, partially out of a desire to stem declining enrollments with adult students.

Organizational density refers to the concentrations of organizations in the environment. Our data strongly suggest that the closer two providers are in proximity to each other, the greater is the potential for interaction. In the case of community colleges and AVTSs, this proximity exacerbates conflict fed by competition for resources. In organizationally dense environments, where many providers of education exist in close proximity, the indifference we have noted becomes less likely.

Our last environmental category is dynamism, or the rapidity of change within the environment. In environments that are changing rapidly, the needs and interests of adult vocational learners also change. Examples of such change might be rapidly increasing unemployment creating a demand for training needed to facilitate occupational shifts. Or industries with a particular technology may move into the environment creating a need for particular technological programs. This was true for one of the counties studied which had developed large concentrations of pharmaceutical firms. When needs and interests for programming shift quickly, providers that are flexible enough to shift programs to meet the demand and terminate programs that are no longer viable are at a tactical advantage. The necessity for purchasing expensive equipment, and institutional rules and regulations affecting the curriculum development and implementation process reduce this flexibility. Conversely, in environments where there is little change, flexibility is considerably less important.

As environments change, providers of adult vocational education have to shift their domains as well as their specific programs. Rapid change in an environment can cause interorganizational conflict as providers shift in the same direction and end up competing for the same funds and clients. In such rapidly changing environments the implicit consensus regarding domain tends to break down as providers move so quickly into new program areas that an implicit understanding has no time to develop.

Summary

In examining the relationship among providers of adult occupational education we find that the most prevalent characteristic is indifference. To be sure there is occasional conflict and competition between adult schools, community colleges and AVTSs, but this competition is seldom pernicious and there were virtually no organized attempts to develop one's program at the expense of other providers. Similarly, although we do find instances of cooperation, cooperation is not extensive and appears to develop primarily when one provider has been motivated to fulfill an objective that it cannot achieve on its own. The net result is a system of providers which are aware of each other, and have developed an implicit understanding among themselves regarding the right to offer particular programs. Domains tend to be well defined and there is a substantial degree of consensus regarding domain. Within this situation, providers tend to go their own separate ways.

The activity of providers of adult occupational education are to a large extent affected by the nature of the environment in which they interact. Environmental affluence retards both competition and cooperation, helping to produce the indifference noted here. The socioeconomic configuration of an environment affects the kinds of programs offered, and population density affects the diversity of programs offered. Organization density affects interorganizational behavior; the greater the number of providers existing in close proximity, the greater the likelihood for interaction.

Finally, the dynamism of the environment, the rate of which it is changing, affects the need for new programs. In rapidly changing environments providers which are flexible in their programming are at an advantage, and environmental dynamism increases the potential for conflict among providers.

PART III

COORDINATION AND COMPETITION: A NATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

The second phase of the research, following the ecological studies of four New Jersey counties, consisted of a national survey which had two major purposes. One purpose was to obtain descriptive information about (a) the extent of coordination and competition among institutional providers and (b) relationships among educational providers and CETA and business and industry. The second purpose was to extend further and test our major conclusions from the ecological study of the New Jersey delivery system. For example, we wanted to determine, among other things, the relationship of domain conflict (disagreement over "turf" among providers such as vo-tech schools and community colleges) to actual competition for students and funds.

Had we the time and resources, the ideal survey strategy would have been to identify all the postsecondary provider institutions in all 50 states and draw a stratified random sample of institutions for the national study. Necessity, however, dictated a less ambitious design that focused on state rather than local-level decision makers. It seemed a reasonable assumption that officials responsible for adult occupational education at the state level would be able to provide much of the needed information on delivery system variables such as coordination, cooperation and competition and linkages with CETA and industry. Consequently, a survey instrument was developed to secure data on the perceptions and opinions of state-level personnel responsible for adult occupational education.

Methodology

Instrumentation

A seven page questionnaire entitled "State Leadership Survey" (see Appendix A) was developed and pretested with the assistance of a panel of experts in adult and vocational education from Rutgers University and the New Jersey State Education Department. Because delivery systems for occupational education vary widely from state to state, great care was taken to define for the respondents what we meant by adult occupational education and terms such as adult school and vocational-technical school. As noted above, the questions were derived from the ecological study of adult occupational education in four counties in New Jersey. Likert-type scales were employed to secure data on perceptions and opinions related to the following major variables: coordination, cooperation and competition among institutional providers of adult occupational education; coordination among state agencies (CETA, state education department, etc.) concerned with adult occupational education; collaboration between institutional providers and CETA; and collaboration between institutional providers and business and industry.

Because extent of urbanization appeared to be a major variable affecting adult occupational education in New Jersey, census data on the proportion of residents in each of the 50 states residing in Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas was included in the analysis in addition to the survey data.[1]

Sampling

The population of the study consisted of professional employees of state education departments and state higher education departments (or coordinating boards or similar bodies) charged with responsibility for adult occupational education.

Because respondent knowledge of the full range of adult occupational education activity in each of the 50 states was essential, a special procedure was employed to identify knowledgeable respondents. For state education department personnel, each of the 50 state directors of vocational education was sent an introductory letter explaining the research and a form asking him or her to nominate the one state education department official most familiar with the full range of adult occupational education programs and institutions. Forty-eight of the 50 state vocational education directors cooperated and supplied us with the names and addresses of 48 "most knowledgeable" employees. A similar procedure was followed in the fifteen states which have separate departments of higher education or separate community college boards, coordinating commissions or other bodies responsible for planning or coordination of postsecondary occupational education. The chief administrators of these bodies were contacted and all 15 agreed to cooperate and supplied us with the names and addresses of their 15 "most knowledgeable" employees.

The population therefore consisted of 48 "knowledgeable" state education department officials, 15 counterparts employed by state higher education departments or postsecondary coordinating bodies, and two officials not identified in the screening process from two non-cooperating states (questionnaires were sent directly to the state directors in these states). The questionnaires were mailed in November, 1978. There were two follow-up appeals to non-respondents. Useable returns were received from 45 of the 50 state education departments (90%) and from 12 of the 15 higher education agencies (80%).

Data Analysis

Both descriptive and analytical statistical techniques were employed in the treatment of the data. Descriptive statistics and percentage distributions were computed for all variables. Analytical procedures, based on the variables identified as important in the New Jersey ecological studies, included bi-variate crosstabulations and multiple regression analyses.

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[1] U.S. Bureau of the Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1978, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978.

Because of the small N and the exploratory nature of the research, .10 was chosen as the criterion of statistical significance. Since the unit of analysis was the state, data from the higher education sector respondents were employed for limited comparison purposes only. The main analyses were based on an N of 45 state education department respondents from 45 different states.

Most of the crosstabulations that follow are based on data from collapsed, Likert-type seven point scales. Categories designated "low" are based on collapsed scale values of 1 and 2; "moderate" on values of 3, 4 and 5; and "high" on values of 6 and 7. Urbanization was measured on a continuum consisting of proportion of the population residing in Standard Metropolitan Statistical areas. For the crosstabulations, this variable was dichotomized, with low urbanization representing 22 states with zero to 62 percent of the population residing in SMSAs and high urbanization representing 23 states with 63 to 93 percent residing in SMSAs.

Findings

Descriptive and analytical findings are reported separately. Since the basic descriptive data are available in the form of percentage distributions for each variable in Appendix A, only the highlights will be reported here.

Descriptive Findings

The crucial descriptive findings in our judgment relate to the following variables: extent of coordination, cooperation and competition among adult occupational education provider institutions; extent of collaboration between providers of adult occupational education and industry and CETA; and involvement and effectiveness of the state education agency and CETA in coordinating adult occupational education. In addition to the foregoing variables, this section examines some of the differences in perception and opinion between respondents employed by state education departments and their counterparts in state postsecondary agencies.

Table 1 summarizes the findings in regard to perceptions of collaboration, cooperation and competition among institutions that provide adult occupational education.

Table 1

Extent of Coordination, Cooperation and Competition Among Adult Occupational Education Provider Institutions (In Percent, N = 45)

		Extent			
Q.#	Variable	Little	Some	Great	Totals*
4	Coordination	31.1	53.4	15.6	100.1
5	Cooperation	44.4	42.2	13.3	99.9
6	Competition	20.0	55.5	24.4	99.9

*Do not add to 100 percent due to rounding

While there is quite a bit of variation among the 45 states, Table 1 indicates that competition is generally more prevalent than cooperation and coordination among delivery system providers. Despite the fact that 80 percent of the respondents indicated the presence of some competition or great competition, less than a third disagreed with the statement (Q. 14 f) "Competition for part-time adult students is not a problem that warrants greater state regulation of provider institutions."

While cooperation among provider institutions is low, it is relatively high between educational providers and employers such as business and industry. In response to the question (Q.10) "to what extent is there collaboration between industry and other employers and institutions that provide adult occupational education?" 4.5 percent indicated little collaboration, 43.2 percent indicated some collaboration, and 52.3 percent indicated a great deal of collaboration.

Collaboration with CETA, on the other hand, is markedly less pronounced. Question 11 asked for ratings of the "extent of interaction with CETA as indicated by the approximate number of training subcontracts under Title 1 or other training provisions." Of the six provider institutions specified, vocational-technical schools ranked first in terms of CETA linkages (23.7% rated interaction high), community colleges ranked second along with post-secondary technical institutes (both 16.7%) and adult schools and proprietary schools trailed far behind (7.2% and 8.8% respectively). Interestingly, many of the respondents indicated that the question was "not applicable" in regard to adult schools, collegiate extension divisions and proprietary schools.

Concerning state-level coordination of adult occupational education, the respondents tended to see the state education department (SED) both as more involved and more effective than the state CETA organization. The data are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Extent of Involvement and Effectiveness of State Education Departments and CETA in Coordinating Adult Occupational Education (In Percent, N = 45)

		Extent of Involvement			Extent of Effectiveness		
Q.#	Agency	Little	Some	Great	Little	Some	Great
8a, 9a	State Ed. Dept.	11.1	33.3	55.5	20.0	48.9	31.2
8c, 9c	CETA Org.	37.8	46.6	15.5	48.9	44.5	6.7

It is interesting to note that 55 percent of the respondents rated extent of SED involvement in coordination as great, but only 31 percent rated SED effectiveness equally high. CETA, not surprisingly given the respondents' backgrounds, came off very poorly in regard to its role in coordination. Thirty-eight percent rated CETA as little involved in coordination efforts and an even greater proportion (48.9%) rated CETA as ineffective in this regard.

The role of the state education department in coordination of adult occupational education was one of the major areas of disagreement between SED respondents and respondents affiliated with postsecondary state-level agencies. Specifically, we compared SED and postsecondary respondents in the 10 states for which we had duplicate questionnaires—one completed by an SED official and one by a postsecondary official. While 7 of the 10 SED respondents rated their agencies as involved in coordination to a great extent, only 2 of the 10 postsecondary respondents in these same states agreed. Similarly, whereas 5 of the 10 SED respondents perceived their agencies to be highly effective in coordinating adult occupational education, only two of their postsecondary counterparts agreed with this assessment. The conflicting perspectives of SED and postsecondary decision makers is epitomized by their answers to question 14c. This item asks respondents to indicate their extent of agreement/disagreement with the following statement: "In my state the community colleges are now or will soon become the dominant providers of adult occupational education." Seven of the 10 SED respondents strongly disagreed with this statement; in contrast only one of the 10 postsecondary respondents strongly disagreed. It would appear that opinions on such matters are highly colored by where one sits.

Analytical Findings

The analytical findings address the basic question of what accounts for variations among the states in the degree of coordination, cooperation and competition among institutions that provide adult occupational education.

The findings from the New Jersey field study suggested a rudimentary conceptual scheme that we were able to test to some extent with the survey data. In essence, we postulated that a high degree of urbanization is associated with a multiplicity of educational provider institutions in relatively close geographical proximity to one another. These contextual features of the environment give rise to domain conflict (disagreement over turf) which in turn leads to relatively low levels of coordination and cooperation and relatively high levels of competition for adult students and funds. Since the analysis presented here is basically correlational, the key propositions of this conceptual scheme are not tested with great rigor. Nonetheless, as will be seen, the findings are suggestive and provide at least tentative support for the model outlined above.

We present first a series of crossbreak tables in which the independent variables are degree of urbanization, geographical clustering of provider institutions, and domain conflict. The dependent variables are those discussed earlier. Following the analysis of crossbreaks, the results of multiple regression analyses are presented. The statistical test applied to the crossbreaks is Kendall's Tau b (and Tau c), a nonparametric measure of association analagous to the familiar Pearsonian r. Tau c is employed rather than Tau b when the number of ordinal categories (rows and columns) in a crossbreak are unequal. Alpha .10 is employed as the criterion of statistical significance.

The first set of tables depict relationships among and between contextual/environmental variables and extent of domain conflict.

Table 3

Geographical Clustering of Provider Institutions
by Extent of Urbanization
(In Percent, N = 45)

	Urbanization	
Clustering	Low	High
Low	57.1	21.7
Moderate	23.8	73.9
High	19.3	4.3

Tau c = .22, $P < .08$

Table 4

Domain Conflict among Provider Institutions
by Extent of Urbanization
(In Percent, N = 45)

Domain Conflict	Urbanization Low	 High
Low	45.0	13.0
Moderate	20.0	39.1
High	35.0	47.8

Tau c = .28, P $<$.05

Table 5

Domain Conflict among Provider Institutions by
Extent of Geographical Clustering of Institutions
(In Percent, N = 43)

Domain Conflict	Geographical Clustering Low	 Moderate	 High
Low	43.8	31.3	25.0
Moderate	13.6	31.8	54.5
High	40.0	20.0	40.0

Tau b = .21, P $<$.07

Tables 3, 4 and 5 show weak but nonetheless consistent trends in the predicted directions. The extent of geographical clustering is lower in less urbanized states, as is domain conflict. Furthermore, domain conflict is somewhat lower in states where geographical clustering of provider institutions is lower. In other words, weak but significant positive correlations exist between geographical clustering and urbanization, between domain conflict and urbanization and between domain conflict and geographical clustering.

The following set of tables portray relationships between domain conflict and coordination, cooperation and competition among provider institutions.

Table 6

Coordination among Provider Institutions
by Extent of Domain Conflict
(In Percent, N = 43)

Coordination	Domain Conflict Low	Moderate	High
Low	16.7	38.5	33.3
Moderate	50.0	46.2	61.1
High	33.3	15.4	5.6

Tau b = .21, $P < .06$

Table 7

Cooperation among Provider Institutions
by Extent of Domain Conflict
(In Percent, N = 43)

Cooperation	Domain Conflict Low	Moderate	High
Low	33.3	46.2	50.0
Moderate	33.3	38.5	50.0
High	33.3	15.4	0

Tau b = .22, $P < .05$

Table 8

Competition among Provider Institutions
by Extent of Domain Conflict
(In Percent, N = 43)

Competition	Domain Conflict Low	Moderate	High
Low	41.7	15.4	11.1
Moderate	41.7	76.9	50.0
High	16.7	7.7	38.9

Tau b = .31, $P < .01$

Tables 6, 7 and 8 again show weak but consistent trends in the predicted directions. Domain conflict, that is disagreement among provider institutions concerning who should offer what programs or courses to adult students, is associated with lower levels of coordination and cooperation among provider institutions and higher levels or competition.

An obvious question at this point in the analysis has to do with the postulated direction of main effects. Specifically, we predicted that domain conflict is primarily attributable to urbanization, in part through the association of urbanization with closer geographical clustering of provider institutions. It is further argued that domain conflict leads to lower levels of coordination and cooperation and higher levels of competition. A plausible alternative explanation is that lower levels of coordination and cooperation and/or higher levels of competition lead to domain conflict. In an effort to resolve this issue, a multiple regression analysis was performed with domain conflict as the dependent variable and urbanization, geographical clustering, coordination, cooperation and competition as the independent or predictor variables. If the variance in domain conflict can be explained mainly by urbanization and geographical clustering, support is provided for the conceptual framework advocated here. On the other hand, if the variance in domain conflict is attributable mainly to coordination, cooperation and/or competition, then the alternative rationale is supported. The regression results are shown in Table 9.

Table 9

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis: Domain
Conflict by Urbanization, Geographical Clustering,
Coordination, Cooperation and Competition
(N = 4)

Variables	Multiple r	Simple r	Beta	F
Coordination	.34	.34	.24	1.1
Cooperation	.41	.41	.20	0.7
Competition	.44	-.24	-.13	0.7
Clustering	.46	-.18	-.13	0.7
Urbanization	.54	-.27	-.28	4.1*

*P .05

Inspection of the standardized regression coefficients (Betas) in Table 9 reveals that only one, that for urbanization, is statistically significant. Thus, with all of the independent variables controlled on each other, only urbanization has a net statistical effect on domain conflict. While the conceptual scheme discussed earlier also posits a direct relationship between geographical clustering of provider institutions and domain conflict, the data do not support this hypothesis. It is clear, however, that the variance in domain conflict cannot be explained by such variables as extent of coordination, cooperation or competition among provider institutions. Thus the theoretical rationale advocated above is at least partly supported by the regression results which show a direct relationship between urbanization and domain conflict.

We turn next to the question of what variables best predict extent of coordination, cooperation and conflict among providers of adult occupational education. The independent variables in the regression equations were entered according to our conceptual scheme which posits urbanization as the basic contextual variable followed (in order) by geographical clustering of providers and domain conflict. In the regression equations for coordination and cooperation competition was also entered as a predictor variable at the final step in the analysis. The results are presented below only for coordination and cooperation. None of the independent variables in the regression model was statistically significant in the prediction equation for competition.

Table 10

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis:
Coordination by Urbanization, Geographical
Clustering, Domain Conflict and Competition
(N = 42)

Variables	Multiple r	Simple r	Beta	F
Urbanization	.13	.13	.22	2.1
Clustering	.20	.17	.23	2.3
Domain Conflict	.46	.34	.43	7.9*
Competition	.46	-.04	-.01	0.0

*P < .01

Table 11

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis:
Cooperation by Urbanization, Geographical
Clustering, Domain Conflict, and Competition
(N = 42)

Variables	Multiple r	Simple r	Beta	F
Urbanization	.05	.05	.18	1.5
Clustering	.14	-.13	-.03	0.1
Domain Conflict	.45	.41	.42	7.5*
Competition	.47	-.24	-.14	1.0

*$P < .01$

The regression results in Tables 10 and 11 are clear. Only one variable—domain conflict—has a statistically significant impact on coordination and cooperation among providers of adult occupational education. Thus coordination and cooperation are greater to the extent that providers agree who should offer what programs and courses to adult part-time students.

Conclusions

In analyzing adult occupational education from an ecological systems perspective in four New Jersey counties we concluded that "indifference" best characterizes the relationship among public sector provider institutions. Coordination and cooperation were found to be minimal and competition was sporadic and muted rather than pervasive and intense. The results of the national survey are generally congruent with the findings of the field studies. In less than a fifth of the 45 states surveyed did respondents indicate a great deal of coordination and cooperation among providers of adult occupational education. Competition was seen as somewhat more in evidence, but only a fourth of the respondents rated competition in their states as high. Nonetheless, competition is intense and seen as a problem requiring state-level intervention in a fairly sizeable miniority of states. Exactly one-third of the respondents disagreed with the statement "competition for part-time adult students is not a problem that warrants greater state regulation of provider institutions."

The role of state agencies in coordinating adult occupational education is another problematical issue. In only half the 45 states was the state education department perceived to be heavily engaged in coordination, and the effectiveness of SED coordination was judged high in fewer than a third of the states. CETA's involvement in coordination was rated high in only a handful of states; its effectiveness in this role was judged high by even fewer respondents. The picture that emerges from the majority of states is not very encouraging if one believes that coordination in this arena is necessary and desirable.

Interaction at the local level between educational providers and CETA in the form of training sub-contracts was also judged to be minimal in most states. Again, "indifference" seems to be the rule—as we found also in our New Jersey field studies in regard to CETA linkages.

The analytical findings, while suggestive from a theoretical point of view, were characterized by generally weak and tenuous associations among the variables of prime interest. One variable did stand out, however, most notably in the regression analyses. That variable was domain conflict, or disagreement over turf among providers of adult occupational education. To the extent that local provider institutions do not agree on who should offer what programs to adult students, coordination and cooperation are likely to be minimal.

PART IV

CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Were we to confine our conclusions and recommendations to adult occupational education as it exists in New Jersey, we could do so with some specificity and with considerable confidence in the validity of our assertions. Our task, however, was to address the problematic questions and issues for a wider audience and thus we have tried to identify only the most salient and generic themes for discussion in this section of the report. Compelled to brush with broad strokes, we recognize that even so the resulting picture in part or whole may not be clearly discernible to every reader in every state. Our final observations and suggestions are not intended, therefore, to be authoritative guides to action or a blueprint for state or national policy. Instead, they are meant to stimulate discussion and reflection, to raise questions if not always answer them, and to provide for some readers a reasoned basis for initiating or resisting change, as the case may be.

1. Each institutional provider of adult occupational education has unique strengths and plays an important role in a total system that has evolved organically and in general serves the needs of the people well. The purposes and clienteles of adult occupational education are so diverse that no single public sector institution can or should play a monopoly role in providing the necessary programs and services. It follows that the hallmark of federal and state policy should be to build on and enhance the strengths that currently exist in a delivery system characterized by healthy diversity and complementarity of function.

2. Complementarity and diversity are threatened by excessive domain overlap or blurring of institutional "turf." When disagreement concerning the roles of different kinds of institutions in providing programs and services to adult learners is deep and widespread, state agencies should take active leadership in helping to clarify institutional goals and functions. Some degree of domain overlap, however, is unavoidable in a diversified delivery system characterized by considerable institutional autonomy.

3. Excessive domain overlap, when it occurs, appears to be a major factor in competition among public sector institutions for adult students and programs. In general, competition is muted and sporadic; sometimes, however, it is intense and chronic. In the former case, competition does not lead to wasted resources or duplication of effort. Instead, it fosters institutional responsiveness to learner and employer needs in a manner analagous

to a free-market economy. Caution, therefore, should be exercised in using state power to control competition. Restrictions on the domain or activities of educational institutions can affect the ecological balance of the system in unforeseen and undesired ways. Reduced access to educational opportunities and diminished institutional responsiveness are two of many possible consequences of strict controls on the autonomy of local education agencies.

4. Much of the rhetoric calling for increased articulation among public educational institutions that provide adult occupational education is based on naive assumptions about organizational functioning. A significant increase in coordination and cooperation among public institutions cannot be expected in the absence of tangible incentives such as special funding for cooperative programs. Institutions cooperate with one-another only on the basis of a quid pro quo. Each must stand to gain significant benefits from the relationship. In general, incentives for articulation are either lacking or not recognized by local educational institutions. State education departments, postsecondary boards or coordinating bodies and CETA can and should provide incentives for articulation and technical assistance to help bring it about.

5. Articulation at the local level is unlikely to occur if state agencies responsible for adult occupational education fail to coordinate their own policymaking, programming and planning activities. In many states, according to our survey results, coordinating and joint planning activities of the relevant state agencies are carried out perfunctorily and ineffectively. The same principle of quid pro quo seems to be operative at the state agency level. It is unlikely, therefore, that state agencies will cooperate with each other unless each sees tangible benefits in doing so. Federal legislation mandating articulation has had some salutary effect, but we believe the federal carrot is a better motivator than the stick. Perhaps what is needed is new federal legislation that provides strong financial incentives for specific joint activities at the state agency level.

6. In regard to articulation between educational institutions and CETA, the quid pro quo is potentially very substantial. There is evidence, at least in New Jersey, that CETA's training objectives can be most efficiently and effectively met by subcontracting with established educational providers such as community colleges and area vocational-technical schools. While

in the past educational providers have often been resistant to CETA involvement, sharp declines in the secondary—and college—aged student cohorts in the 1980's should prove a strong incentive for closer ties with CETA. Up to now, occupational education in public educational institutions has been so financially secure and so much in demand that linkages with CETA promised few if any meaningful rewards. That comfortable state of affairs seems to be changing in most states. To be sure, barriers to articulation between CETA and educational institutions related to differences in goals, educational "philosophy," and operating style are still formidable. They are not insurmountable, however, given good will on both sides and determination to identify and ameliorate the more serious obstacles to sustained and effective collaboration.

7. Greater articulation with business and industry and other employers and with organized labor is in some respects needed and feasible. Once again, however, noble intentions and stirring rhetoric tend to obscure the realities of organizational self-interest. The fact that employers and unions are engaged in, or vitally concerned with, manpower development does not mean that their needs and interests are always closely intertwined with those of public educational institutions. The interests of business and labor are generally well-represented through such articulation mechanisms as apprenticeship committees and advisory boards. Incentives for closer ties, for example in the form of jointly sponsored training programs, are often weak both for employers and for educational providers. Employers prefer to do most of their own training, in large part because their needs tend to be highly specialized. When needs are not highly specialized and educational institutions possess the needed training resources, then the opportunity and incentive for collaborative programming exists. These opportunities generally take the form of upgrading the skills of persons who have already obtained employment. Continuing occupational education, therefore, should be a major priority for federal and state efforts to enhance articulation between education and the workplace.

8. As we have stressed repeatedly, articulation does not take place simply because it is the good or sensible thing to do. Meetings and conferences, regulations and exhortations are not enough to bring about change. As noted above, tangible incentives are an absolute prerequisite for any kind of articulation at any level. But even tangible incentives are not always sufficient. To implement change at the local level often requires active leadership at the state level. State education departments, CETA, and postsecondary agencies cannot confine their activities to planning, monitoring or program and staff development if greater articulation among institutional providers of adult occupational

education is required. To effect change, state agencies must assume the less familiar roles of advocacy, brokerage and technical assistance. In New Jersey this proactive stance is well-exemplified by the Division of Vocational Education (DVE) in the State Education Department. Briefly stated, the DVE has assumed leadership in bringing about joint programs involving vocational-technical schools and community colleges in counties across the state. Basically, the aim is to provide the colleges with access to expensive AVTS facilities and equipment and to provide adult and postsecondary AVTS students with the option of earning an associate's degree through the college. Developing these articulation agreements has required DVE to persuade both institutions that the benefits of linkage outweigh the costs (advocacy), to act as a middleman in negotiating the terms of the contract (broker), and to provide ongoing advice and assistance as needed (technical assistance). While other states may not have the same needs as New Jersey, the point remains that change in the status quo generally requires state agencies to assume a true leadership role: to inform, persuade, advise and assist.

APPENDIX A

RUTGERS
THE STATE UNIVERSITY
OF NEW JERSEY

NATIONAL STUDY OF ADULT OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION
STATE LEADERSHIP SURVEY

CENTER FOR ADULT DEVELOPMENT
RUTGERS-THE STATE UNIVERSITY
NEW BRUNSWICK, N J 08903

Center for Adult Development
Rutgers - The State University
New Brunswick, N. J. 08903

NATIONAL STUDY OF ADULT OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION

STATE LEADERSHIP SURVEY

Directions for Completing Questionnaire

Please try to answer all questions. If the forced-choice categories do not fit your situation, please write in an explanation. We realize that occupational education delivery systems and terminology differ from state to state. We have tried to phrase questions so that they are generally applicable. Please read the definitions below and keep them in mind when completing the questionnaire. For purposes of this survey the terms occupational education and vocational education are considered synonyms. Many thanks for your assistance.

Definitions

Adult Occupational Education. Education or training on a part-time or short-term basis for persons beyond the age of compulsory schooling designed to develop specific occupational skills in preparation for employment or to upgrade the skills and knowledge of those already employed. Included is degree-credit occupational education up to the level of the two-year associate degree and all certificate or non-credit part-time occupational education at any level for any purpose.

Community College. Any public two-year postsecondary institution that offers associates degrees in both occupational and non-occupational subjects.

Postsecondary Technical Institute. Any public postsecondary institution that offers associates degrees and/or courses and certificate programs exclusively or primarily in occupational subjects.

Vocational/Technical School. Any public education agency that provides occupational education programs at the secondary and postsecondary or adult levels.

Adult School. The unit of a local public school system that provides educational programs and services to adult learners.

Collegiate Extention Division. The unit of a four-year college or university that provides mainly non-credit programs for adult learners in both occupational and non-occupational subjects.

Means and Percentage Distributions (N=45)

Card One ( ) 1-4

1. In your state, what is the approximate number of institutions which provide adult occupational education in each institutional category?

Institutional Category	Approximate Number	
a Adult Schools	84.0	5-7
b Community Colleges	15.3	8-10
c Postsecondary Technical Institutes	7.8	11-13
d Vocational/Technical Schools	25.6	14-16
e Collegiate Extension Divisions (4 yr)	7.8	17-19
f Proprietary Schools	80.1	20-22
g Other (specify)________________	______	23-25

2. Please rank-order the following institutions on the basis of your best estimate of the number of adult part-time learners served in occupational programs/courses. Assign the number 1 to the institution that serves the largest number of such learners, 2 to the institution that serves the next largest number and so on for all six institutional categories. For institutions that do not exist in your state please enter "not applicable."

Institutional Category	Rank Order	
a Adult Schools	1 = 17.2 %	26
b Community Colleges	1 = 40.5 %	27
c Postsecondary Technical Institutes	1 = 24.1 %	28
d Vocational/Technical Schools	1 = 37.2 %	29
e Collegiate Extension Divisions (4 year)	1 = 2.9 %	30
f Proprietary Schools	1 = 3.1 %	
g Other (specify)________________	______	32

3. For your state are separate dollar figures available for vocational education funds (both federal and state) expended for adult and for postsecondary programs in FY 1977?

84 Yes ( ) 33

16 No

(If Yes), please indicate FY 1977 dollar amounts expended for:

a Adult programs _______$ ( ) 34-40

b Postsecondary programs _______$ ( ) 41-47

(If No), please indicate FY 1977 postsecondary expenditures: ________$ ( ) 48-54

4. In general in your state, to what extent is there coordination among institutions in regard to adult occupational education programs and services?

Little or No Extent						Great Extent	
13.3	17.8	15.6	17.8	20.0	15.6	0	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	55

5. In general in your state, to what extent is there cooperation (e.g., joint programs) among institutions that provide adult occupational education?

Little or No Extent						Great Extent	
20.0	24.4	20.0	11.1	11.1	13.3	0	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	56

6. In general in your state, to what extent is there competition (e.g., for adult students, funds, new programs) among institutions that provide adult occupational education?

Little or No Extent						Great Extent	
2.2	17.8	11.1	24.4	20.0	11.1	13.3	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	57

7. Regarding service to part-time adult learners, to what extent in your state is there competition between:

	NA	Little or No Extent						Great Extent	
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
a. Adult Schools and Community Colleges?		30.0	16.7	16.7	13.3	16.7	3.3	3.3	58
b. Adult Schools and Postsecondary Technical Institutes?		25.0	12.5	20.8	16.7	16.7	8.3	0	59
c. Adult Schools and Vocational/Technical Schools?		44.4	22.2	14.8	14.8	0	0	3.7	60
d. Adult Schools and Collegiate Extension Divisions (4 yr.)?		44.8	20.7	17.2	10.3	3.4	0	3.4	61
e. Community Colleges and Postsecondary Technical Institutes?		18.5	22.2	18.5	18.5	11.1	7.4	3.7	62
f. Community Colleges and Collegiate Extension Divisions (4 yr.)?		17.1	8.6	22.9	22.9	17.1	2.9	8.6	63
g. Community Colleges and Vocational/Technical Schools?		18.8	18.8	15.6	9.4	25.0	12.5	0	64
h. Postsecondary Technical Institutes & Vocational/Technical Schools?		43.5	17.4	13.0	13.0	0	8.7	4.3	65
i. Postsecondary Technical Institutes & Collegiate Extension Divisions (4 yr)?		32.1	17.9	14.3	17.9	14.3	0	3.6	66
j. Vocational/Technical Schools and Collegiate Extension Divisions (4 yr)?		46.7	13.3	13.3	20.0	3.3	0	3.3	67

	NA	Little or No Extent						Great Extent	
k. Proprietary Schools and any other institutions that provide adult occupational education?	0	1 27.8	2 2.8	3 25.0	4 14.7	5 11.1	6 11.1	7 2.8	68

8. To what extent is each of the following involved in coordinating adult occupational education activities in your state?

	Little or No Extent						Great Extent	
a. State Education Agency	6.7 1	4.4 2	11.1 3	8.9 4	13.3 5	31.1 6	24.4 7	69
b. State Board for Vocational Education	7.5 1	2.5 2	20.0 3	12.5 4	12.5 5	20.0 6	25.0 7	70
c. State CETA Unit	15.6 1	22.2 2	22.2 3	13.3 4	11.1 5	4.4 6	11.1 7	71
d. State Higher Education Agency	29.5 1	18.2 2	4.5 3	18.2 4	15.9 5	9.1 6	4.5 7	72
e. CETA prime contractors (counties, cities)	19.0 1	16.7 2	21.4 3	31.0 4	4.8 5	2.4 6	4.8 7	73
f. Local education institutions	11.1 1	13.3 2	11.1 3	17.8 4	17.8 5	17.8 6	11.1 7	74
g. Other (specify) ______________	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	75 (1)

9. To what extent is each of the following effective in coordinating adult occupational education activities in your state? 76

Card Two
( )

	Little or No Extent						Great Extent	1-4
a. State Education Agency	8.9 1	11.1 2	6.7 3	13.3 4	28.9 5	15.6 6	15.6 7	5
b. State Board for Vocational Education	9.8 1	4.9 2	19.5 3	22.0 4	22.0 5	4.9 6	17.1 7	6
c. State CETA Unit	28.9 1	20.0 2	15.6 3	20.0 4	8.9 5	0 6	6.7 7	7
d. State Higher Education Agency	40.9 1	9.1 2	18.2 3	18.2 4	9.1 5	0 6	4.5 7	8
e. CETA prime contractors	37.2 1	25.6 2	11.6 3	16.3 4	4.7 5	2.3 6	2.3 7	9
f. Local education institutions	20.5 1	15.9 2	13.6 3	13.6 4	15.9 5	15.9 6	4.5 7	10
g. Other (specify) ______________	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	11

10. In general in your state, to what extent is there collaboration between industry and other employers and institutions that provide adult occupational education (e.g. cosponsored programs, advisory committees)?

Little or No Extent						Great Extent	
4.6 1	2.3 2	2.3 3	15.9 4	25.0 5	34.1 6	18.2 7	12

11. For each of the adult occupational education institutions listed below, please estimate the extent of interaction with CETA as indicated by the approximate number of training sub-contracts under Title 1 or other training provisions.

		Extent of CETA Interaction							
Institutions	NA	Very Low						Very High	
a. Adult Schools	0	21.4 1	10.7 2	25.0 3	35.7 4	3.6 5	0 6	3.6 7	13
b. Community Colleges	0	16.7 1	11.1 2	25.0 3	16.7 4	13.9 5	11.1 6	5.6 7	14
c. Postsecondary Tech. Institutes	0	10.0 1	10.0 2	20.0 3	26.7 4	16.7 5	6.7 6	10.0 7	15
d. Voc./Tech. Schools	0	2.9 1	8.6 2	14.3 3	28.6 4	20.0 5	17.1 6	8.6 7	16
e. Proprietary Schools	0	26.5 1	23.5 2	5.9 3	23.5 4	11.8 5	5.9 6	2.9 7	17
f. Collegiate Extension Divisions	0	58.6 1	17.2 2	13.8 3	6.9 4	3.4 5	0 6	0 7	18
g. Other (specify) ________________	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	19

12. In your state, to what extent is there:

	Little or No Extent						Great Extent	
a. Conflict regarding the federal 15% provision for postsecondary programs?	32.6 1	25.6 2	14.0 3	4.7 4	14.0 5	7.0 6	2.3 7	20
b. Regulation of adult occupational education by state agencies?	9.1 1	15.9 2	11.4 3	11.4 4	22.7 5	15.9 6	13.6 7	21
c. Adequate funding for adult occupational education?	20.5 1	18.2 2	18.2 3	22.7 4	13.6 5	4.5 6	2.3 7	22
d. Diversity of employment opportunities?	2.3 1	2.3 2	9.1 3	31.8 4	25.0 5	18.2 6	11.4 7	23
e. A rapidly changing business/industrial base?	4.5 1	6.8 2	9.1 3	38.6 4	15.9 5	20.5 6	4.5 7	24
f. Awareness among employers of the education/training capabilities of adult occupational education institutions?	2.3 1	4.5 2	20.5 3	43.2 4	18.2 5	11.4 6	0 7	25

	Little or No Extent						Great Extent	
g. Awareness among adult occupational education institutions of the education/training needs of employers?	6.8 1	0 2	15.9 3	29.5 4	22.7 5	22.7 6	2.3 7	26
h. Interest among provider institutions in better coordination of adult occupational education programs?	2.3 1	11.4 2	13.6 3	38.6 4	15.9 5	18.2 6	0 7	27
i. Interest among state agencies in better coordination of adult occupational education programs?	2.3 1	6.8 2	2.3 3	15.9 4	36.4 5	31.8 6	4.5 7	28
j. Cooperative planning among state agencies concerned with adult occupational ed.?	2.3 1	11.4 2	20.5 3	22.7 4	27.3 5	15.9 6	0 7	29
k. Coordination between CETA and state agencies concerned with occupational education?	11.1 1	13.3 2	4.4 3	20.0 4	28.9 5	15.6 6	6.7 7	30

13. To what extent do adult occupational education institutions in your state:

	Little or No Extent						Great Extent	
a. Compete for adult students?	9.1 1	18.2 2	18.2 3	27.3 4	25.0 5	0 6	2.3 7	31
b. Compete for CETA funds?	11.1 1	20.0 2	24.4 3	22.2 4	15.6 5	2.2 6	4.4 7	32
c. Cluster close together geographically?	27.3 1	11.4 2	22.7 3	22.7 4	4.5 5	6.8 6	4.5 7	33
d. Perceive CETA contracts as involving excessive red tape, paperwork, etc.?	2.3 1	11.4 2	9.1 3	11.4 4	22.7 5	20.5 6	22.7 7	34
e. Perceive CETA involvement as incompatible with their goals or standards?	2.3 1	22.7 2	20.5 3	20.5 4	18.2 5	11.4 6	4.5 7	35
f. Perceive CETA eligibles as undesirable students?	13.6 1	31.8 2	9.1 3	22.7 4	13.6 5	4.5 6	4.5 7	36
g. Agree concerning who should offer what programs/courses to adult part-time students?	9.3 1	14.0 2	18.6 3	30.2 4	20.9 5	7.0 6	0 7	37

14. The following items relate to problems, issues and policy alternatives concerning adult occupational education. On the basis of your own experience and perceptions, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement below.

Question 14, continued

Statement	Strongly Disagree			Un- decided			Strongly Agree	
a. Overall, the present delivery system in my state is quite effective in meeting the needs of adult part-time learners for work-related education.	4.5 1	9.1 2	20.5 3	6.8 4	34.1 5	22.7 6	2.3 7	38
b. Considerably more than 15% of federal Vocational Education Act funds should be earmarked for postsecondary programs.	13.6 1	6.8 2	4.5 3	15.9 4	9.1 5	29.5 6	20.5 7	39
c. In my state the community colleges are now or will soon become the dominant providers of adult occupational ed.	44.4 1	11.1 2	8.9 3	2.2 4	6.7 5	20.0 6	6.7 7	40
d. In general, new occupational education programs serving adult students are based on thorough assessment of labor market needs and existing educational resources.	4.5 1	4.5 2	22.7 3	11.4 4	20.5 5	25.0 6	11.4 7	41
e. In my state the state board for vocational education adequately represents the interests of postsecondary institutions.	6.7 1	8.9 2	22.2 3	6.7 4	11.1 5	20.0 6	24.4 7	42
f. Competition for part-time adult students is not a problem that warrants greater state regulation of provider institutions.	0 1	11.1 2	17.8 3	4.4 4	15.6 5	37.8 6	13.3 7	43
g. CETA will increasingly play a central role in adult occupational education in my state.	11.1 1	15.6 2	11.1 3	20.0 4	17.8 5	17.8 6	6.7 7	44
h. A dual track of adult occupational education is emerging with CETA serving the poor and traditional institutions serving the rest of the population.	13.3 1	15.6 2	11.1 3	15.6 4	22.2 5	15.6 6	6.7 7	45
i. No meaningful distinction can be made between adult and postsecondary occupational education.	18.2 1	20.5 2	4.5 3	6.8 4	18.2 5	22.7 6	9.1 7	46
j. If less money were available for adult occupational education there would be more collaboration between local provider institutions.	24.4 1	40.0 2	11.1 3	15.6 4	4.4 5	2.2 6	2.2 7	47

15. At present, how much emphasis does your own state agency place on each of the following functions in regard to adult occupational education?

	Little or No Emphasis						Great Emphasis	
a. Curriculum and staff development/ supervision.	2.2 1	17.8 2	17.8 3	22.2 4	20.0 5	15.6 6	4.4 7	48
b. Planning	2.2 1	11.1 2	20.0 3	22.2 4	15.6 5	20.0 6	8.9 7	49
c. Regulation/monitoring of programs/ institutions	2.2 1	11.1 2	22.2 3	20.0 4	17.8 5	17.8 6	8.9 7	50
d. Other (specify)________	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	51

(2)

16. Any comments you might wish to make on the issues dealt with in this survey would be greatly appreciated. 76

____
Name and Title

____

____

____
Address

If you would like your own copy of the results of this study, please provide your name and address above.

Thank you very much for your assistance.